The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 1, 1886.

The Week.

THE news of Mr. Manning's illness and temporary incapacity for work will be received with the sincerest regret by men of all parties. Not only has he given himself to the duties of a most laborious position with extraordinary devotion, but he has brought talents to it such as have not been placed at the service of the Treasury for many a day. His reports on the tariff, and particularly on the silver question, are masterpieces in their way, which will command the respectful attention of economists and public men all over the world. We join in this expression of the sympathy and regret which every one is feeling, all the more heartily because we were among those who doubted at the outset the expediency of Mr. Manning's appointment. We feared he was too much of a politician, and not enough of a financier, for the place. But he has utterly disappointed all doubters and cavillers. His selection has proved one of the very best illustrations of President Cleveland's sagacity.

The strike in the Southwestern railroads has apparently reached its termination in a somewhat simple way. The Executive Committee of the Knights have had long conferences with Jay Gould in this city, but apparently without getting any further than the instructions contained in Mr. Gould's telegram to Mr. Hoxie on Saturday. In answer to that telegram, Mr. Hoxie has expressed his willingness to meet a committee composed of Knights "actually at work in the service of the company, and adjust with them any grievances they may have." This is not what Irons sought for, but the Executive Committee here decided that it was sufficiently satisfactory to justify an order to the men to return to work at once, and such an order was accordingly despatched on Tuesday. As a matter of fact, however, the strike was already breaking down through its own weight; the number of freight trains moving on all the lines was rapidly increasing, and the property of the companies fully protected against the mob except at one or two points. Indeed, a decent excuse for stopping an enterprise which owed what success it has had to criminal violence, was evidently all that the Executive Committee here desired.

The circular of Mr. Powderly, the General Master Workman, to the Knights of Labor, complaining of their strikes and their boycotting and their violence and lawlessness and recklessness, coupled with the remarks of Mr. Arthur, of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, is the most encouraging sign which has appeared in the labor agitation for many years. It shows that moderation, and judgment, and knowledge, and discretion do exist among the Knights, though they may be temporarily overpowered by ignorance, and passion, and crime. They have done much to reassure the multitudes of good people, of all callings, who have been asking themselves during the past few weeks whether American society was really going to be called upon to defend itself with rifles and cannon against a huge band of brigands. Nothing is easier than for labor organizations to command in this country an amount of sympathy and support from all classes in any attempt to better their condition, which would compel employers to make every possible concession through the mere force of public opinion. But no organization can secure any aid from public opinion which resorts to violence, which seeks to further its aims through assaults, pillage, riots, murder, the destruction of property, and physical compulsion of dissidents. The great bulk of the community hate violence and disorder, and attacks on personal liberty, and the persecution of individuals and minorities, and, in fact, tyranny of all kinds, no matter who exercises it; and without the sympathy of the great bulk of the community neither the Knights nor any other organization, as Mr. Powderly points out to them, can succeed in anything.

The comments of Mr. Arthur, the Chief of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, on the practice of boycotting must be extremely lacerating to the Knights of Labor and other advocates of the system. Mr. Arthur says that the Locomotive Brotherhood publish a magazine which circulates 16,000 copies, and that he was waited on recently by a committee of Knights, who gravely demanded that the advertisement of a boycotted firm should be excluded from the magazine, and that he (Arthur) threw their written demand into the waste basket and told the committee to go about their business. What the committee will do next is not known, but they ought to "order out" all the printers who work on the magazine, and notify the paper mills not to supply any more paper to the Locomotive Brotherhood. If the papermakers refuse to obey the order, they should be boycotted, and picketed and prevented from getting any coal or rags, and all dealers in these articles should be served with notice not to trade with them. Finally, if necessary to "secure recognition" by the monopolist Arthur, all the Knights of Labor in the United States should be "ordered out," on the principle that an injury to one is the concern of all.

Perhaps the most dangerous feature of the whole Southwestern disturbance is the fact that the power to suspend the operation of thousands of miles of railway is practically lodged in the hands of one man, whose motives for ordering a strike may be dishonest and purely mercenary. It has been charged that Mr. Irons, the leader of District Assembly No. 101, ordered the strike on the Missouri Pacific in order to depress the stock market. A secret circular of his dated March 23 is published, which points out the probable effect upon the stock market of Mr. Gould's lawsuits against the Knights as one of the elements likely to work in favor of the strikers. It is improbable, however, that Mr. Irons had any speculative plans or intentions of his own to be promoted by the disturbance, but it is plain that such power as he exercises might be used in that way with tremendous effect, and that human virtue could not long resist the temptation to use it when by a mere scratch of the pen a man might make himself rich enough to retire from any kind of labor or business, and nobody need ever be the wiser for it. There are scores of operators in Wall Street who would guarantee Mr. Irons an independent fortune for one strike, and who would arrange things so that nobody should ever know where the money came from.

The evidence given before the Committee of the Legislature in Massachusetts, of Mr. Cyrus W. Field's proposal to wreck the New York and New England Railroad is now overwhelming. Mr. Clark on Friday repeated Mr. Field's declarations made in the presence of seventeen gentlemen, apparently in complete unconsciousness of the effect they would produce. What Field and Sage proposed was, to form a combination for the purchase of the second-mortgage bonds, to be followed by a foreclosure, so as to shut out the stockholders and the creditors and to "make some money," and they both opposed a plan to reorganize the road in such a manner as to save the stockholders and the creditors, on the ground that "there was no money in it." Field even went so far as to censure the directors for publishing a true account of the condition and earnings of the road, on the ground that the "showing was too good"—that is, would interfere with his plan of getting hold of the mortgages at a low rate. We are glad to say the plan was then and there indignantly denounced as dishonest by the Boston men, and it was the communication of it to the Governor and Council which made them refuse to sell the State bonds to Field and his associates on any terms, on the ground that the possession of the road by such men would be injurious both to the road and the State. "Character," as Mr. F. L. Higginson said in his testimony, "still counts for a good deal in this world," and Field and Sage had not enough of it for this particular transaction.

A bill to raise the effective strength of the army of the United States to 30,000 men—it is now 25,000—has been on the calendar of the Senate for several years, getting very little attention *pro* or *con*. Senator Logan has kept it alive by introducing it and referring it, and reporting it back and making a speech upon it now and then. In following his customary programme this year he finds that his measure has suddenly become interesting, and that almost everybody has something to say about it. The reason why this bill, this venerable bore of fatigued Senators, has become entertaining is not far to seek, although most of the debaters are looking quite the other way, and pretending not to observe anything in the internal disorders of the country calling for the exercise of force either now or at any future time. Senator Platt, of Con-

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necticut, last week referred to the remote possibility that a strong military force might be required to deal with a class of socialist propagandists who are coming hither from the Old World, and seeking to put in force doctrines subversive of the Government of the United States. Senator Beck, of Kentucky, with his usual low view of every public question, opposed the bill for the reasons which caused Senator Platt to favor it. He (Beck) did not believe in standing armies. They were a menace to "the people" and a convenient tool of despotism. They always ended in the overthrow of liberty, etc., etc.

The arguments in favor of the bill are very plain and simple, and ought to be proclaimed by every supporter of it, not apologetically and with bated breath, but openly and manfully. No anarchist, no organization of law-breakers, will be deceived by the soft words and excuses of any supporter of the bill. No person of education and common sense will be taken in by Senator Beck's apprehensions of the overthrow of liberty. Five thousand soldiers are not going to subvert free institutions in this country. A million such, supported by all the energies of two-thirds of the Union, had their powers taxed to the utmost to conquer one-third of the American people twenty years ago. Mr. Beck's apprehensions are that if he votes for any increase in the army, the class who believe that they have the right to be billeted for life on other people at wages to be fixed by themselves, and that all persons who refuse to be billeted upon ought to have their tools destroyed and their windows broken, will vote against him at the next election. Although 5,000, or 50,000, or 500,000 soldiers would not be dangerous to liberty in this country, 5,000 men in addition to those required to guard the Indian frontier might be very useful in preventing a massacre in San Francisco, or in restoring a railroad to the possession of its owners in St. Louis, or in guarding bridges in Texas, or in performing in a sudden emergency any other duty which the ordinary police are inadequate to perform. Calling out the militia to meet such emergencies means disorganizing industry for the time being, and is therefore the most expensive way of meeting the crisis. The militia are never as efficient as the army, man for man, and they always move reluctantly for the suppression of disorder. Rioters have very little respect for the militia, but very much for the army. A movable force of 5,000 men would save more bloodshed than it would cause by preventing the gathering of mobs.

Any sign of returning sanity among victims of the pension craze in Congress is to be heartily welcomed, and we would fain believe that a glimmer of hope is justified by the action of the House in the case of Margaret B. Harwood last week. Mr. Rogers, of Arkansas, who, by the way, was a "rebel soldier," had introduced a bill granting a pension of $50 a month to the widow of Rear-Admiral Harwood of the United States Navy, on the ground that she is an aged woman in destitute circumstances, and that her daughter, who lives with her, has also been left a widow, and has four children to support. The Committee on Pensions reported the bill favorably, and everybody supposed that it would slip through the House without being challenged, like so many similar bills for the widows of other army and navy officers in the past. But discussion was insisted upon. The facts were brought out that Rear-Admiral Harwood had received a salary which should have enabled him to leave his widow in comfort, and that the daughter is receiving a pension because her husband died from disease contracted in the army. In short, it was shown that Mrs. Harwood's case is in no wise different from that of many thousands of other widows throughout the country, who receive no support from the public treasury because their husbands have left them without a competence in their old age. Thereupon members found sufficient courage to declare that Congress ought not to grant a pension which is not demanded by considerations of justice, and, on a vote, the bill very narrowly escaped defeat, receiving only 96 affirmative votes to 94 negative.

The minority report of the House Committee on Coinage, bearing the signatures of Messrs. Bland, Lanham, and Bynum, recommends the free coinage of silver as a substitute for the present law, which provides for the coinage of silver dollars on Government account. Mr. Bland's arguments in favor of a change in the law are not particularly impressive. The existing law is at variance with the tenets of every school of finance in the world. It is obnoxious to the theories of both bimetallism and monometallism. It is exposed to every sort of attack and is incapable of defence on any side. It was enacted against Mr. Bland's protest and as a substitute for his measure. It has been tried eight years, and its results have frustrated all the expectations and designs of the silver men except the single one of furnishing an artificial market for the product of the mines. This was not the object had in view by Mr. Bland and his followers. They wanted, as his minority report shows, to do something for the "debtor class"; that is, to furnish them a cheap dollar to pay off their mortgages with. No such result has been brought about as yet, and no man can say how near or how remote the millennium of the debtors may be. The only thing quite certain is, that the people are paying two million dollars per month for bullion, which might more profitably be employed in paying the public debt and lessening the interest charge.

Under these circumstances we looked for a pretty sharp rebuke and condemnation of the existing law at the hands of Mr. Bland. But we find only a very mild and deprecating censure of the two-millions-per-month law, and no suggestion that it should ever be repealed unless free coinage of silver be substituted for it. Perhaps Mr. Bland has postponed a more decisive expression of his views until a vote can be had on his free-coinage motion. If this is voted down he may intend to make another motion, either for an international conference, or for a suspension of silver coinage for a definite time. Logically, he and all other bona-fide silver men must attack and overthrow the present law and practice of the Government, if they expect ever to get a "cheap dollar" in actual circulation. But while Mr. Bland deals very gingerly with the law, he does not conceal his desire to see the single silver standard established in this country. So far is he from fearing that all our gold would be exported under a free coinage act that he considers that eventuality most desirable. "The result," he says, "would be an increase in the monetary supply in European countries of gold that would set the machines of industry in motion, giving the starving laborers of those countries employment, and enabling them to purchase our commodities." This method of reviving domestic industry by sending our gold to foreigners so that they may be able to buy our products, is feasible even without a free-coinage act, and it is a wonder that it has never occurred to us or to other countries as a cure for commercial crises in the past. But we advise Congress not to act upon it in the first flush of excitement upon so happy a discovery. Rather let us propose to Europe to make the first experiment, by sending us all of her gold to set our industry going, so that we can buy her commodities. Then, if the plan works well, we can reverse the operation.

The House voted on Monday, 115 to 133, not to refer a bill identical with the Blair bill to the Committee on Education, and subsequently sent it, by nearly the same vote, to the Committee on Labor. The advocates of Federal aid to schools claimed that the Education Committee would smother the measure by not reporting it back to the House at all, while the Labor Committee would give the House a chance to consider it. The House is entitled to have the matter brought before it, and a number of members, like Mr. Long, of Massachusetts, voted to send the bill to the Labor Committee in order that it might surely be reported back, without in the least thereby committing themselves to support the scheme when it comes up for consideration on its merits. If the Education Committee really intended to kill the measure by indirection, the action of the majority was justifiable and commendable. The long debate in the Senate a month ago was so disastrous to the scheme that, as the Washington correspondent of the Springfield *Republican* frankly confessed, the Republican majority only allowed the bill to pass the upper branch in order to "keep their records straight" for consistency, as they had supported a similar bill two years ago, and with the assurance that it would fail in the House. That this assurance was well founded appears more clear every week.

Cases have not been infrequent where a single speech in a legislative body against a pending measure has defeated it. It has very appropriately fallen to the lot of Congressman Singleton, of Mississippi, to achieve the unique distinction of defeating an excellent bill by a single speech in its favor. The bill providing for the much needed Congressional Library Building came up in the House on Wednesday week, and two hours were allotted for its consideration—a sufficient time, if judiciously employed, to secure a vote, which

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would probably have been favorable. But Mr. Singleton, who had charge of the measure, insisted upon using up the two hours in making a needless speech for the bill, and so relegated the measure to the calendar of unfinished business, where it may be buried too deep for resurrection. But even such a warning will not produce any effect upon a statesman who is loaded with a speech.

The custom of having the sessions of the Houses of Congress opened with prayer by a 'chaplain" needs either a serious reform or total abolition. Many of the prayers now offered are silly, and some blasphemous. One offered lately in the House was really a foolish stump speech on the strikes, which it was disgraceful to try to disguise as a petition to Almighty God. There ought to be a stop put to this sort of thing. If prayer be desirable, it had better be silent prayer, offered by the members, each for himself, and not for his neighbors. There are very few men indeed competent to pray for their neighbors.

The results of the operation of the Civil-Service Act, as set forth in the report sent in to Congress by the President, are most gratifying. Nearly every expectation of its friends has thus far been fulfilled. The effect of the report, too, will be much heightened by the attack on the reform itself in the Senate on Friday by Mr. Ingalls. Anything more blackguard is seldom heard in any Alderman's pot-house in this city, from a City Hall loafer. It cleared the galleries of decent women, but was received with roars of laughter by the Republican Senators to whom it was addressed in support of the Edmunds resolutions about "the papers." These resolutions were carried by a strict party vote. They cannot have the smallest effect on the President, or any one else, and they have been carried at a terrible cost to their chief promoters. It is, on the whole, a happy circumstance for the lovers of good government that the final stroke in their favor should have been a silly and foul-mouthed joke.

Since the recent hearing accorded to the friends of the Postal Savings Bank Bill by the House Committee at Washington there has been a considerable awakening of public interest on this question. A good many petitions have been sent in, some meetings have been held and resolutions passed, and many newspapers have spoken for or against the measure. We judge that although the system may not be adopted by Congress this year, it will gain strength by agitation and discussion, and will eventually and at no very distant day be engrafted upon our post-office machinery as it has been on that of the most enlightened countries of the Old World. We presume that the objections urged against the system by Mr. John P. Townsend in the *Evening Post* are as strongly stated as they can be by anybody, since that gentleman is a recognized authority in the literature of savings banks. The first of these objections, if we understand it rightly, is that if a large amount of money should be deposited in the Treasury through the post-offices, it must be invested in United States bonds, and that if a sudden demand should be made for the money by the depositors, the Government would be obliged to sell the bonds, probably at a loss, and make up the difference out of the general fund in the Treasury, thus taxing the many for the benefit of the few. The most obvious answer is that an ordinary panic would never cause a "run" on the Government by frightened depositors. The tendency in such a case would be to send in fresh deposits to a place considered absolutely secure rather than to draw out money already there. The class of people who deposit money in savings banks do not choose periods of panic for the purpose of making permanent investments. When they draw out money under the influence of panic, they do so because they have lost confidence in the place of deposit. What they draw out they bury in the ground, or stuff into mattresses, stockings, coffee-pots, or crevices in the wall; and to the minds of all such, without a single exception, the Government is the type and symbol of absolute safety. The danger, if any, in such a case would be that depositors in ordinary savings banks might be impelled in times of panic to draw out money in order to lodge it in the postal banks. But under the provisions of the pending bill no person can deposit more than $100 within a space of thirty days.

Mr. Townsend's next objection is, that at the end of twenty years or so there will be no public debt, and therefore no investment for the postal-savings deposits. What are we to do in such a case? Well, if the postal-savings fund earns no interest, it will not pay any, under the terms of the proposed bill. It would be quite indefensible for the Government to go on paying interest on the money of private persons without any reimbursement to itself. That would indeed be taxing the many for the benefit of the few. When the Government can no longer earn interest for the depositors it can pay their principal back to them or allow it to lie in the Treasury subject to the call of the owners. Nobody will be harmed by that situation, but on the other hand the valuable and to many the inestimable privilege of resorting to an absolutely safe place for the custody of their funds will still remain. It cannot be too often repeated that no friend of the bill proposes to continue the national debt one hour in order to keep alive an interest-bearing investment for the money of savings depositors.

The anarchists were unfortunate in making their first experiment on a great scale in Belgium, because, although the manufacturing population is large, the number of small farmers is greater in proportion to population than in any other country in Europe, or perhaps in the world, and their industry may fairly be called implacable. No eight-hour days or compulsory hiring for them. Their day lasts from dawn to dark, and as they ask nothing from any man, they allow no man to billet himself on them against their will. They consequently have little sympathy with communistic modes of making the earth a pleasant abode, and most distinctly object to being killed or having their houses looted by tramps from the great towns. Hence the troops in going to extremities with the strikers have their hearty sympathy and support; but they must have lived in great terror during the last week or two. The labor problem in Belgium is none the less most serious. A huge body of ignorant workers for daily wages has been gradually concentrated in the large towns of a small state, and orders have been diminishing and prices falling, and wages falling with them, and the French Anarchists have been busy showing that people who own anything are to blame, and ought to be exterminated.

The statement of the *Pesther Lloyd*, a leading journal of Buda-Pesth, that Prince Alexander is about making his army proclaim him King of United Bulgaria, may be true as expressing a hidden intention or wish of the Prince as to the future, but it is undoubtedly premature as the announcement of an approaching fact. The Prince has, in the last six months, given too many evidences of prudence and circumspection, combined with firmness and courage, to be believed capable of risking the fruits of a long series of favorable events and concessions wrung from foes. A secret movement intended to secure a Russian triumph and his own downfall was changed by the revolutionary *coup* of September 18, 1885, into a union *de facto* of Eastern Rumelia with his principality of Bulgaria, under his own auspices and sceptre. King Milan's invasion in November, which aimed at undoing this work for the sake of Servia's preponderance and expansion in the Balkans, was baffled in a most surprising manner by Alexander's military skill and the unexpected prowess of both his former and his new subjects. Czar Alexander's violent outburst of spite against the German Prince, as an ungrateful upstart, turned Russia's rival in Balkan politics, Austria-Hungary, whose sympathies had encouraged the King of Servia, into a supporter of the Bulgarian union. The Porte, whose suzerain rights the revolution of Philippopolis had infringed upon, was induced by the armaments of Servia and Greece, and the anti-Russian influence of the English Foreign Office, to conclude, in January, an agreement with Prince Alexander, which made him its Governor-General of Eastern Rumelia for at least five years, and stipulated military co-operation, if needed, against Servia and Greece. Discomfited by his reverses, abandoned by Austria-Hungary, and distracted by conspiratory plottings, King Milan, after much hesitation, signed an inglorious treaty of peace with Bulgaria, negotiated at Bucharest about the beginning of March, and a conference of the great Powers subsequently assembled at Constantinople sanctioned the results of both agreements; Russia yielding to the power of circumstances with very bad grace and some reservations, and Greece alone, of all the states concerned, continuing to bluster. So much substantial gain and newly-acquired prestige Prince Alexander will not jeopard for a title which, with the independence it may imply, he is sure to win in the end.

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SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, March 24, to TUESDAY, March 30, 1886, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE President sent to Congress on Thursday the third annual report of the Civil-Service Commission with a message in which he said: "Wherever this reform has gained a foothold it has steadily advanced in the esteem of those charged with public administrative duties, while the people who desire good government have constantly been confirmed in their high estimate of its value and efficiency. With the benefits it has already secured to the public service plainly apparent, and with its promise of increased usefulness easily appreciated, this cause is commended to the liberal care and jealous protection of the Congress."

The report covers the year from January 16, 1885, to January 16, 1886. Among its features are the following: It shows a comprehensive execution of the Civil-Service Act and rules, the particulars of which are fully set forth. Applicants have been examined within the year from every State in the Union, and from every Territory except Utah. From three to six different examinations have been held in each of 17 States, and there have been in all 150 different examinations, all of which except 5 have been competitive, and at these only 8 persons were examined. The whole number of persons examined under the Commission during the year has been 7,602, of whom 6,872 were males and 730 were females. The whole number thus far examined since the act was passed has been 17,491. Of the 7,602 examined during the past year 5,034 attained the minimum of 65 per cent., which makes them eligible for appointment, and 2,568 failed to show that degree of proficiency, and consequently are ineligible for appointment. Of those examined a trifle less than two-thirds (66.22 per cent.) succeeded. The average age of all those examined was thirty years. The whole number of appointments made during the past year from those examined has been 1,876, each for the probationary period of six months. If to these we add 2,300, the number made during the previous eighteen months under the rules, it shows that 4,176 have been appointed in two years. The report shows how the examinations strengthen the school system of the country, and that the general results have been as salutary in New York and Massachusetts, where the competitive system is now established, as in the Federal service. Concerning the President and his Cabinet the report has this language: "Under all circumstances, and in every part of its work during the past year, not less than in previous years, the Commission has had the cordial and unswerving support of the President." The report in conclusion states that only a larger force for the Commission and adequate appropriations are needed to enable examinations of appropriate kind to be extended, not only to smaller post-offices and customs offices, but to the railway mail service, to mints, to the District of Columbia, to internal-revenue offices, to the consular service, to promotions, and wherever else they may, in the light of larger experience, be thought likely to be useful.

Senator Mitchell (Rep., Ore.) in the Senate on Wednesday decidedly opposed the Edmunds programme, and sent up a substitute resolution to the effect that, in the case of the failure or refusal of any head of a department to furnish papers concerning removed officers, it would still remain the constitutional duty of the Senate to proceed within a reasonable time to consider nominations with such light as it had; and such a refusal should not be deemed in itself a sufficient reason for the Senate to refuse to consider or consent to the confirmation.

The Edmunds resolutions were finally adopted in the Senate on Friday. Mr. Van Wyck's open-session resolution came up first, but was ruled out on a point of order, and an appeal was tabled, Van Wyck and Riddleberger voting nay with the Democrats. The first two resolutions were then adopted by a party vote, including the censure of the Attorney-General. The third resolution, providing for the rejection of nominations about which the information demanded is not furnished, was next adopted by one majority; Mitchell, Riddleberger, and Van Wyck voting nay with the Democrats. The majority by which this resolution was passed was so small that the most enthusiastic supporter of it does not expect that it will define the party policy. At least it is not expected that there will be a wholesale rejection of nominations. Liberal use will undoubtedly be made of the saving clause, which does not require rejections except in cases where the Senate shall consider it important to call for the papers.

In the course of a debate on the Postal Appropriation Bill in the House on Wednesday Mr. Burrows (Rep., Mich.) attacked the Post-office Department, declaring that it had not only nullified law touching the administration of the postal service, both domestic and foreign, but had defied not only the spirit but the letter of the Civil-Service Law.

Mr. Belmont offered a joint resolution in the House on Monday appropriating $147,758 "to pay the Chinese Government in consideration of the losses unhappily sustained by certain Chinese subjects by mob violence at Rock Springs, Wyoming Territory, on September 2, 1885, said sum being intended for distribution among the sufferers and their legal representatives, in the discretion of the Chinese Government; that the further restriction of Chinese and coolie immigration, if it shall be found expedient and necessary, can be most properly accomplished by the modification of existing treaties."

Mr. Willis (Dem., Ky.) introduced in the House on Monday a bill similar to the Blair Education Bill and moved to refer it to the Committee on Labor, which is supposed to be friendly to the measure. The House so referred the bill by 138 to 113. A member of the Committee says that he is confident that the Committee will not vote to report the bill favorably, but that the Committee will make a report of some kind and not smother the bill.

The House Post-office Committee has decided to report adversely the bill doubling the rate of postage on fourth-class mail matter.

It is ascertained that a majority of this Committee now favor the Postal Savings Bank Bill, having been convinced by the recent public hearing and by the favorable comments of the press that the supposed dangers to private institutions are imaginary.

Secretary Manning's condition continued very serious throughout the week. It was admitted that the attack was in the nature of apoplexy, and was the result of overwork.

Attorney-General Garland is seriously ill of nervous prostration.

Geronimo, three other Apache chiefs, and seventy-seven of their band have unconditionally surrendered to General Crook.

Grand Master Workman Powderly on Friday issued a notable manifesto to the Knights of Labor throughout the country. After dwelling at some length upon the inadvisability of taking in new members at present, the address continues: "We must not fritter away our strength and miss the opportunity of present success in the struggle against capital by rushing into useless strikes. To the cardinal principles of the order, we must add another—patience. You have had patience for years, and had not the Knights of Labor appeared upon the scene you would still be waiting. Your scales of prices must stand as they are for the present if you cannot raise them by any other process than a strike. You must submit to injustice at the hands of the employer in patience for a while longer. Bide well your time. Find out how much you are justly entitled to, and the tribunal of arbitration will settle the rest. Assemblies of the Knights of Labor must not strike for the eight-hour system on May 1st under the impression that they are obeying orders from headquarters, for such an order was not and will not be given. I write this circular to lay before the order the exact condition of things. I am neither physically nor mentally capable of performing the work required of me. I am willing to do my part, but must not be asked to maintain a false position before the world any longer. One of two things must take place—either the local and district assemblies of the order must obey its laws, or I must be permitted to resign from a vocation which obliges me to play one part before the public and another to our members."

On Saturday Mr. Powderly, on behalf of the Knights of Labor, sent a proposal to Mr. Jay Gould asking for the appointment of an arbitration committee of seven, three members to be appointed by Mr. Gould, three by the Knights of Labor, and the seventh by these six; the decision of the committee upon the railroad difficulties in the Southwest to be final.

The communications on Saturday between Jay Gould and T. V. Powderly did not result in any agreement, Mr. Gould refusing to accept arbitration so long as the Missouri Pacific Railway was subjected to unlawful interference by the strikers. On Sunday, however, an agreement was reached, after two conferences at Mr. Gould's house. The result was that Mr. Gould sent the following to General Manager Hoxie, of the Missouri Pacific: "In resuming the movement of trains on the Missouri Pacific and in the employment of labor in the several departments of the company, you will give preference to our late employees, whether they are members of the Knights of Labor or not, except that you will not employ any person who has injured the company's property during the late strike; nor will we discharge any person who has taken service with the company during the said strike. We see no objection to arbitrating any differences between the employees and the company, past or future." Mr. Powderly telegraphed to the Knights of Labor in the Southwest: "President Jay Gould has consented to our proposition for arbitration, and so telegraphs Vice-President Hoxie. Pursuant to telegraphic instructions sent to the Chairman of the Executive Board of District Assembly No. 101, you are directed to resume work at once." On Monday Mr. Gould said that Mr. Powderly had misunderstood him. He had not agreed to arbitration, but had referred the whole matter to Mr. Hoxie. Orders were issued by the Executive Committee of the Knights at St. Louis on Monday to resume work, but they were not immediately obeyed. Later in the day, on advices from Mr. Powderly that there was a hitch in the negotiations, the order to resume work was rescinded. Trains, however, were run from Sedalia without molestation.

Messrs. Gould and Powderly were again in consultation on Tuesday, and at 9:30 P. M. the Secretary of the Knights telegraphed to Martin Irons in St. Louis: "Have been in conference all day, with the result that Vice-President Hoxie agrees to the following: He is willing to meet a committee of employees, without discrimination, who are actually at work in the service of the company at the time such Committee is appointed, to adjust with them any grievances that they may have. Have your Executive Committee order the men to return to work, and also select a special committee from the employees of the Missouri Pacific to wait on Mr. Hoxie to adjust grievances. Do this as quickly as possible. Board will leave for St. Louis to-morrow." It is believed that this will end the strike.

Judge Dyer, of the United States District Court, sitting in Chicago, in a suit to recover $10,000 insurance on the life of a man who committed suicide while insane, insured in the Accident Insurance Company of North America against injuries effected by "external, accidental, or violent means," suicide being especially excepted, decides against the

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company, holding that in this case the act of suicide was no more the man's act in the sense of the law than if he had been impelled by an irresistible physical power.

Steinitz won the twentieth and deciding game of chess and the championship of the world at New Orleans on Monday, the total score standing Steinitz 10, Zukertort 5.

It is now believed that the schooner *Charles H. Morse* sank the Cunard steamship *Oregon*.

The Rev. John Rankin, a native of Tennessee, and one of the oldest abolitionists in the United States, died at Ironton, O., March 18, aged ninety-three. He was pastor of the First and Second Presbyterian Churches at Ripley, O., for forty-four years. From this place (1824) he addressed some most forcible letters to his brother in Middlebrook, Va., dissuading him from slaveholding, which were published at Ripley in 1826, were afterward (1832) reprinted in the *Liberator*, and again in book form in Boston and Newburyport, and ran through many editions. He joined the Garrisonian anti-slavery movement, and was mobbed for his anti-slavery views more than twenty times; in 1837 being knocked down on leaving a church at Dayton, O., and in 1841 being assailed even on his own premises.

Ex-Justice Ward Hunt, of the United States Supreme Court, died in Washington on Wednesday. Justice Hunt was born in Utica, in 1810, was graduated from Union College in 1828, and attended law lectures afterward at Litchfield, Conn. He was a Judge of the New York Court of Appeals from 1865 to 1872, when he was appointed a Justice of the United States Supreme Court by President Grant. His health failed afterward, and in 1882 Congress passed a bill retiring him on a pension.

FOREIGN.

Mr. Gladstone was ill with a cold on Thursday and was prevented by his physicians from making his proposed announcement on the Irish question in the House of Commons. Sir William Vernon Harcourt was, however, delegated to do that duty, and announced that Mr. Gladstone would state his Irish policy to the House on April 8.

A British Cabinet meeting was held on Friday. Mr. Gladstone was better, and able to be present.

Mr. Gladstone reappeared in the House of Commons on Friday afternoon. Referring to the announcement made in his behalf by Sir William Vernon Harcourt, Mr. Gladstone said that the statement he would make on April 8 would take the form of the introduction of a bill for the future government of Ireland.

On Saturday it was announced that Mr. Chamberlain and Mr. Trevelyan had resigned, and their resignations had been accepted by the Queen. They expressed opposition as strong and unchangeable to certain details of Mr. Gladstone's home-rule plan as to the land-purchase scheme itself. This being so, no further hope of union is possible. In consequence of these secessions, land purchase will lose its precedence in the whole scheme, but will not be essentially altered in form. Home rule in itself will take the principal place, and the Conservative party will be left to take some initiative action on the legislative proposals which have been framed chiefly in their interests.

Mr. James Stansfeld (Radical) has been appointed President of the Local Government Board in the place of Mr. Joseph Chamberlain. Mr. Stansfeld occupied the same office once before. The Earl of Dalhousie has been appointed to succeed Mr. G. O. Trevelyan as Secretary for Scotland. Lord Dalhousie will not, however, have a seat in the Cabinet. It is expected that there will be six secessions from Mr. Gladstone's Ministry, outside of the Cabinet. There is no truth in the rumor that Lord Spencer will resign.

A London correspondent states, on the highest authority, that the following are Mr. Chamberlain's views on the Irish question, the views, moreover, to which he will adhere, and which he believes will secure the support of a majority of the Radicals of the country. He favors an Irish National Assembly in Dublin, free to make by-laws, but subject to the authority of Parliament, and able to make rates, but leaving the Queen's taxes to be settled at Westminster; Ireland to have liberty to manage her own affairs, but another sovereign authority similar to the imperial Parliament to be regarded as entirely inadmissible; not a single Irishman to be removed from St. Stephen's. This would involve a revision, if not a repeal, of the Act of Union.

Mr. Gladstone and Lord Hartington have interchanged views in regard to the Premier's Irish policy. It is surmised that Lord Hartington may come to Mr. Gladstone's support and more than offset the defection of Mr. Chamberlain. The London *News* believes that Mr. Gladstone's scheme does not place the police under control of an Irish Parliament. It is believed that a division on the Irish question will hardly be reached before Easter.

Mr. Gladstone, in the House of Commons on Monday afternoon, stated that on April 8 he would ask permission to introduce his Irish Government Bill. He added that on April 12 the budget would be introduced, and that on April 15 he would request permission to introduce a bill to amend the laws for the sale and purchase of land in Ireland.

Mr. Donald Horne Macfarlane, Radical, asked the Government, in the House of Commons on Thursday afternoon, whether it was true that the Cunard steamship *Oregon* had an insufficient supply of lifeboats aboard. Mr. Mundella, President of the Board of Trade, answered that the *Oregon* had 896 passengers and crew, and boats capable of carrying 265. He said the *Oregon's* boat accommodations were largely in excess of the statutory requirements. No ship carried boats sufficient to accommodate all the passengers.

It is asserted that Lord Randolph Churchill and William Henry Smith have had a bitter quarrel, and the latter threatens to withdraw from the Conservative party unless the former apologizes.

Queen Victoria went in state on Wednesday afternoon to open the ceremony of laying the foundation of the new Examination Hall of the College of Surgeons, on the Thames embankment, London. As the Queen and Princess Beatrice were driving near the Buckingham Palace Park, along the Constitution Hill road, a shabby-looking man elbowed his way through the crowd and threw a small package into the carriage. The Queen was alarmed at the man's approach, and Princess Beatrice leaned forward apparently to shield her mother. The package proved not to be dynamite, as was suspected, but a note complaining that the petitioner had been robbed of his pension. He proved to be Charles Brown, an old English soldier, who has several times been confined in an insane asylum. He was arrested, but afterward released at the Queen's command.

Justice Butt, of London, on Thursday decided that a divorce obtained in America from the bonds of a marriage performed in England is invalid in England.

Richard Chenevix Trench, D.D., formerly Archbishop of Dublin, of the Church of Ireland, is dead. He was born in 1807, educated at Cambridge, was professor at King's College, London, and for eight years Dean of Westminster. He was appointed Archbishop of Dublin in 1864, and resigned that office twenty years afterward. Archbishop Trench was a voluminous writer. Among his best known published works were 'Notes on the Miracles,' 'Notes on the Parables,' 'The Study of Words' (which reached a seventeenth edition), and 'Lectures on Mediæval Church History.' He will be buried in Westminster Abbey.

Sir Henry Taylor, the English writer, is dead at the age of eighty-six. He produced in 1827 'Isaac Comnenus: a Play.' His next venture in the dramatic line was 'Philip Van Artevelde: a Dramatic Romance' (2 vols., 1834), which was at once recognized as a masterpiece. His prose works comprised 'The Statesman' (1836), containing views upon the transaction of public business; 'Notes from Life, in Six Essays' (1847); 'Notes from Books, in Four Essays' (1849); and his poems appeared in two volumes entitled 'The Eve of the Conquest, and Other Poems' (1847), and 'A Sicilian Summer, and Minor Poems' (1868). His autobiography was published last year. His fifty years of official life in the Colonial Department won him the knighthood of the Order of St. Michael and St. George.

The strike begun by the miners at Liége a fortnight ago is extending rapidly all over Belgium. It has now practically become a universal demand by the miners of the country for an increase of wages accompanied by a decrease in the hours of labor. This labor movement at Liége is under the control of anarchists, and the city is really at their mercy. The damage done at Charleroi by the strikers amounts to $2,500,000. In the rioting there on Sunday several persons were killed and many wounded. The town is now quieter. The rioters at Jumet, upon the approach of the troops sent to disperse them, placed 200 women in the front ranks. The troops opened fire, and many of the women were wounded. The strike is extending to Namur. Additional troops have been called from Brussels to quell the disorders. The strike in the Charleroi district was ended on Tuesday.

The debate on the second reading of the German Spirit Monopoly Bill was begun in the Reichstag on Friday. Prince Bismarck made an irritating speech. It was impossible, he said, to increase the revenues by direct taxation. Spirits were especially favorable for taxation. If the Monopoly Bill should be rejected, the Government would introduce a bill to tax the consumption of spirits. It was doubtful whether, with such a majority, the Reichstag would ever be the pivot upon which German unity could revolve. If the Reichstag did not better comprehend its duty, he feared for the future of the empire in the event of complications with foreign countries, though he saw no immediate danger. He would also say that he foresaw no danger in the spring of 1870. If the strength of the empire was likely to be put to severe tests, the present was the time to provide for contingencies. The adoption of the Spirit Monopoly Bill would strengthen, while its rejection would prejudice the empire. The bill was rejected on Saturday by 181 to 3, the members of the Right not voting.

All the Powers except Russia have agreed to recognize Prince Alexander as Governor of Eastern Rumelia during his life.

It is asserted that Prince Alexander is about to make his army proclaim him King of United Bulgaria.

The progress of the electoral campaign in Spain indicates the return of a large Liberal and monarchical majority to the Cortes.

The Comtesse de Chambord is dead.

The two Russian patients of M. Pasteur who a few days ago showed symptoms of hydrophobia, are now recovering.

The natives of Senegal in rebellion against French authority have resorted to open warfare. In a recent attack the rebels killed nine French soldiers and wounded thirty-two. Reinforcements for the colony are being rapidly fitted out at Toulon.

The Abyssinian troops sent to relieve the garrison at Kassala have fought a battle with hostile Arabs near that place and defeated them, capturing 550.

The British troops have defeated 400 Burmese near Yemethen.

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THE "FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLE" OF THE KNIGHTS OF LABOR.

THE *Overland Monthly* for March contains an interesting article by a leading Knight of Labor in California, giving the view taken by the Knights of the Chinese question. We say it is interesting, because as a general rule the Knights are rather chary about engaging in public discussion on any subject. Considering the size of the organization, and the claims it makes on public sympathy and forbearance, the small extent to which it puts itself on paper about anything is indeed very remarkable. Very little is known about its social or political creed, or about its plan for reconciling its own existence and activity with those of any civil government. The article in the *Overland Monthly*, therefore, by Mr. W. W. Stone, is almost the first bit of information we have had touching the way in which the Knights look at the constitution of human society. Here is, for instance, according to Mr. Stone, what an average Knight has a right to expect from any community in which he lives:

"The fundamental principle on which our organization is based is, that the Almighty made air, earth, fire, and water for the use of man. Those who use these agencies incur an obligation which is best met by a due regard for the rights of others. We believe it to be reasonable ground to take that, having a common interest in these great natural agencies, no one man has a right to ask or expect a fellow-being to work for the mere purpose of continuing existence. Under our system of popular government, the man and citizen has a right to expect that he will be protected from the greed of the avaricious in the hunt for subsistence for his wife and family. It does not, therefore, seem absurd to hold that the working classes have a right to expect that those in authority shall devise means by which labor shall be fostered and protected."

That the use of air, earth, fire, and water imposes on each person an obligation to respect the rights of others, we can well understand. We concede, too, that it would be, to say the least, uncivil to ask any one to work for the mere purpose of continuing existence. What we complain of on the part of the Knights, however, is their insisting on working for people who do not desire their services. They are, in fact, trying to introduce into modern society a new right—that is, the right to be employed by people who do not want you and who cannot afford to pay you what you ask. Surely the use of air, earth, fire, and water imposes on us all the obligation not only to ask nobody to work for us at a rate of wages which he does not like, but also the obligation to ask nobody to employ us at a rate of wages which he does not like. The obligation on these points is and must be reciprocal. Nobody ought to use air, earth, fire, and water who insists on staying in a man's service against his will, at a rate of pay to which he does not agree.

We concede, too, that a citizen should be "protected from the greed of avaricious men in the hunt for subsistence for his wife and children," but then there must be some limits to the extent to which this protection can be afforded. "Popular government" is a fine phrase, but it means simply the joint action of the whole of us who live in the country, and who are engaged in procuring subsistence for our wives and children. By subscribing a certain sum of money every year, and employing policemen and judges, we insure each other against such of the avaricious men as take to robbery or fraud. But how are we to protect every father of a family from being overreached by avaricious men in making bargains and in the purchase and sale of commodities? We cannot send a lawyer around with each citizen to see that nobody cheats him or pays him too low a price for what he has to sell. Mr. Stone seems to forget that while Mr. Brick might be occupied in protecting him against some avaricious men, Brick's own family would be left exposed to them, and might be reduced to penury, owing to his absorption in looking after Mr. and Mrs. Stone and their children. The use of air, earth, fire, and water, in fact, imposes on all adults using them, as a matter of necessity, the obligation of protecting themselves against all but the grosser forms of violence and fraud. However much they might desire it, they could not possibly do more than this. Every one of us knows what hard work it is to take care of himself in his own sphere of activity, and how few there are who have the time and capacity to take care of their neighbors.

The way Mr. Stone applies these "fundament principles" to the Chinese in California is very curious. It appears that "from one thing especially the laborer should be shielded, and that is the operation of the competitive system, because under the working of this industrial curse the muscle of a human being is put up at a kind of auction, in much the same way that the old slave was knocked off the block." How the laborer is to be shielded from the competitive system, Mr. Stone does not say, but from this premise he jumps at once into the conclusion that it is the Caucasian only, after all, and not the whole human family, for whom God made the air, earth, fire, and water, and that the Chinese are not entitled to the use of these commodities, wherever they come in contact with the Caucasian. The reason why God has made this exception in the case of the Chinese is, according to Mr. Stone, that

"they are the natural product of a pagan climate and a despotic soil. Their system of government comprehends the patriarchal as well as the monarchical form. The head of a family has the lives of his charges in his own hands. The head of the Government has the fate of his family under his will. It is no uncommon occurrence for a family to be sacrificed for the misdeed of some fugitive member. With such a training, who cannot see that an attempt to educate these people in the principles of government and to teach them the individual advantages of trade organization would be sheer absurdity? Their success in driving out of the market all white competitors in several branches of trade, shows the danger to the perpetuity of our republican form of government arising from consent on our part to continue the unequal competition."

So it appears that it is not all of God's creatures who are entitled to protection from avaricious men, and from the competitive system, but only those who have received a certain kind of education. If a man has had the misfortune to be born under a despotism, he has no rights which a Caucasian is bound to recognize, but may be killed or robbed by avaricious men with impunity, and exposed freely to any number of competitors armed with clubs and revolvers.

Without inquiring too minutely into the extent of Mr. Stone's knowledge of Chinese government or society, we would like to ask him whether the Emperor of China ever, on hearing that there has been a business quarrel between two men in one of the wards of the City of Pekin, orders traffic to be suspended and the streets barricaded on all the great thoroughfares, until the quarrel is settled to the satisfaction of one of the parties, and directs anybody who tries to force the blockade on his lawful occasions, to be kicked, and stoned, and have his wagon broken. Or whether, on hearing that the captain of a junk has wrongfully dismissed his mate in the province of Kan-Su, he ever orders traffic to be suspended along the whole of the river Hoang-Ho, and lines the banks with troops with orders to wreck and burn all junks and boats trying to move up or down, till the mate is restored to his place.

We have never heard of such things in China, but we know men in America who live under a despotism of this very kind, and seem to like it, and we think all talk from them about danger from the Chinese "to the perpetuity of our republican form of government" is very droll. Such men do not even know what a republican form of government is.

"THE OTHER SIDE OF THE CHINESE QUESTION."

THE country has heard so many wild statements and so much incoherent rhetoric from anti-Chinese agitators of the Denis Kearney type that it is refreshing to get a sober statement of facts such as Col. Fred. A. Bee, the Chinese Consul at San Francisco, has recently published, in the shape of a memorial to the people and the Congress of the United States. It is only when one has thus brought together before him the testimony of the leading citizens of California and the evidence of official records that he fully realizes the madness, as well as the brutality, of the warfare which a professedly Christian State is now waging upon an unoffending race.

The San Francisco Board of Supervisors a few weeks ago published a book which gave fresh currency to all the familiar old charges in their most aggravated form, and Colonel Bee's pamphlet takes up these charges in succession. The book embodies the report made last summer by a special committee of the Supervisors upon this question, and Colonel Bee says that the man who is the author and father of this report expects that it will give him the nomination for Mayor. Some of its statements were so preposterous that even certain San Francisco papers had independence enough to protest against them, the *News-Letter* pronouncing the report "more than usually sensational and misleading," while the *Argus*, after quoting the diatribe against the Chinese quarter, declared that "there are numerous patches in other parts of the city that can hold their own for unadulterated immorality, death-dealing filth, and general cussedness against any part of Chinatown."

The cry that the Chinese are really slaves is again raised. Colonel Bee says that this charge was made originally about twenty-five years ago, and the Legislature of 1862 appointed a committee to investigate it, which reported that, after most thorough inquiry, they were "satisfied that there is no system of slavery or coolyism among the Chinese in this State," and that "they are as free as

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any persons in the State." The same charge was again brought in 1876, and an exhaustive inquiry was made by the Congressional Committee of which Senator Morton was chairman, who reported that "Chinese labor in California is as free as any other; they all come as free men, and are their own masters absolutely." Colonel Bee describes the origin and sets forth the character of the famous "Six Companies." The first Chinese immigrants who entered the mining region came from the six districts in the province of Canton, and they simply imitated a custom which they found among the Caucasian miners, who had formed organizations and established headquarters for the mutual advantage of men from the same State, Colonel Bee himself at that time belonging to the New York headquarters. The Chinese organizations are simply benevolent societies, which give aid to the new-comer, look after the sick, and send home the dead; and the only foundation for the charge that they maintain tribunals outside our laws is the fact that the presidents of the companies occasionally act as arbitrators to settle difficulties between their countrymen, although neither party is ever bound by their findings.

The Supervisors' book contains several pages of testimony to the depravity of the Chinese, which was taken ten years ago before a one-sided legislative committee, the Chinese not being permitted to present their case. Colonel Bee presents about thirty pages of the testimony which was given later in the same year by leading citizens of California before the Morton Committee. As to the character of the Chinese merchants, Joseph A. Coolidge, Secretary and Manager for ten years of the Merchants' Exchange, testified that "they are intelligent, shrewd, courteous, and gentlemanly, honorable in their business transactions"; that he had been "informed by merchants who have had extensive business transactions with them that the usual contracts in writing were unnecessary, their word being a sufficient guarantee for their fulfilment, and in a term of years, in which business to the extent of millions of dollars was transacted, not one cent has been lost by bad faith on their part." Richard G. Sneath, former manager of the Merchants' Exchange, President of a bank, and a merchant for twenty years, said upon this point:

"I have dealt a great deal with the Chinese merchants in this city. I have always found them truthful, honorable, and perfectly reliable in all their business engagements. I have done business with them perhaps to the amount of several millions of dollars. I have never had a single one of them fail to live up to his contracts. I never lost a dollar by them in all my business engagements with them, though we commonly accepted a Chinaman's word as good for a cargo of merchandise, while a written contract was demanded of white men."

So much for the merchants. Now for the laborers. Solomon Heydenfeldt, a resident of California for twenty-seven years, and Associate Justice of the Supreme Court for five years, testified that he considered the Chinese "the best laboring class we have among us; more faithful, more reliable, and more intelligent than an equal number of European immigrants; more industrious than the corresponding class of whites; thoroughly reliable and perfectly faithful to their engagements. Very few of the ordinary laboring class cannot read and write their own language." Herman Heynemann, President of a woollen factory and an employer of Chinese laborers for fifteen years, said: "We have not had a single case before the police court of murder, or rows among themselves, or theft upon the proprietors. I think there are few factories run entirely by white labor that could say as much." Donald McLennan, manager of a woollen mill and employer of 300 Chinese operatives, replied to questions regarding their character: "I never found a case of theft among them. They are a very steady people; I have never seen a drunken Chinaman in my life." Colonel William W. Hollister, one of the largest farmers in the State and a long-time employer of the Chinaman, gave this opinion of him "as a worker and man":

"As a laborer he is most submissive and kindly, ready to do what you want done, with entire good will. He descends to the lowest employments, and, when properly treated, thinks of no degradation in the lowest of labors. As a man I have found him honest, and as a rule very intelligent. Who ever saw a drunken Chinaman? His moral condition is so good that I think out of the whole 400 Chinese population in Santa Barbara there have been but five arrests in the course of a year. Two of them were dismissed: two cases were for petty larceny, stealing vegetables, or something like that, from their own people. I never saw a better population in my life. If the teachings of paganism make honest men, as I find the Chinamen to be, I think seriously of becoming a pagan myself."

As to their sanitary habits, Mr. Coolidge said: "In cleanliness of person they are remarkable. I have observed them closely in their various occupations, and on the streets, and cannot call to mind an instance of dirty face, or hands, or of soiled garments." William F. Babcock, director in a quicksilver mining company, which employed 120 Chinamen, said that "every night of their lives every Chinaman bathes himself from head to foot. If you will look at their hands and feet and necks, you will see them as clean and neat-looking people as you ever saw in the world. They are different from the lower white classes." Dr. Arthur B. Stout, a member of the State Board of Health, whose residence was almost in the Chinese quarter, said that the death-rate was greater among the whites than among the Chinese, although the latter live very closely in their quarter, and he thus accounted for the fact:

"Their frugal life gives them more immunity from disease. They eat only what is necessary to live upon. They eat to live, and do not live to eat. They are clean in their habits, and they drink no whiskey. I have never seen a drunken Chinaman in my life. They consequently obtain a better resisting power to the attack of disease."

Dr. Stout, being asked how the Chinese quarter compared with other parts of the city, replied that the squalor was not much greater, and that the difference was largely due to the fact that less care was taken of the quarter by the city authorities. "I can take you down to the lower part of the city," he told Mr. Morton and the other Congressmen, "and show you much more squalor in the form of neglect, want of drainage, and want of proper care, than you would find in the Chinese quarter. There has been a great exaggeration in all those charges against the Chinese."

Since this testimony was taken the Exclusion Act has been passed, all danger of the Pacific Coast being overrun by the "barbarians" is gone, and the proportion of the Chinese to the whole population is steadily sinking. Why is it that the white population are filled with such hostility against them? This was one of the questions which the Morton Committee repeatedly asked, and two of the answers which they elicited are worth quoting. Said Mr. Babcock:

"I think it arises from politicians, office-holders, and foreigners, as a general thing. Very many of our population pander to this low taste, you may call it, and join in the outcry against the Chinese in order to get the foreign vote and popularity among them. That is my idea."

Mr. Heynemann's notion of the cause was this:

"The same cause that has been prevalent all over the earth—strangeness of manners. It used to be in England that any man who did not speak English was a 'bloody foreigner.' It did not make any difference whether he was the best man in the world, he was a 'bloody foreigner,' and it was the height of contempt to use that expression. If this race, instead of keeping themselves in their peculiar dress, were to drink whiskey and patronize the bar-rooms to-day, just like others do, the prejudice would disappear immediately."

A KETTLE OF FISH.

THREE months ago there was a fisheries question all along the coast from Cape Cod to Eastport. Excited fishermen and their representatives were hurrying to Washington to protest against any negotiations with Great Britain looking to a renewal of any kind of a treaty regarding the fisheries, and gallant Congressmen were passing censure upon Secretary Bayard for the six months' arrangement which he made in the interest of the fishermen last year. Mr. Blaine was not unmindful of his duty to the country at such a crisis; so he published in the *Irish World* a long chapter from his "history" on the subject of the Washington Treaty, showing how completely we were taken in and done for at Halifax, and how, having paid $5,500,000 for fishing privileges, it was the part of wisdom and patriotism not to make use of the thing purchased a moment longer than was absolutely necessary. Mr. Pat Ford was naturally impressed with the statesmanlike tone of the excerpt. Everything betokened a flourishing political issue for the next campaign, grounded upon a tariff on codfish and protection to American labor.

But Mr. Bayard and the other betrayers of their country said, "Very well, have it your own way. If you are satisfied with the Treaty of 1818, so be it." Straightway there fell a calm, and the nation went about its other business, of which it had a plenty, forgetting the fisheries as completely as though there were no such thing in the universe. From the hour that the resolution was reached to let the fishermen and their learned counsel and their daring Senators have their own way, there ceased to be any fisheries question. The fishermen having elected to take their chances of profit under the tariff rather than under a treaty, there was no occasion to lash ourselves into a fury in anticipation of what Canada would do. As for Great Britain, she, too, had other fish to fry, Irish for the most part, and much more costly than any caught on the Grand Banks. Both countries closed the book on the 30th of December, 1885, and went about their greater concerns.

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It now turns out that the first step to be taken to go a-fishing at Gloucester, Mass., is to ship a lot of Canadian sailors—this by way of protecting American labor. So the Gloucester captains put into Nova Scotian ports, hire the men, and make ready to take them on board. "No," say the Canadian authorities, "the Treaty of 1818 does not allow you to come here except for water and fuel. Sailors are neither water nor fuel. They are not even American labor. So please take water and fuel and begone." The Gloucester captains take their medicine manfully. They tell the hired men to buy tickets to some American port at their expense and they will call for them. This is one of the new costs of fishing, but no patriot heart will be fired on account of a prohibition against the shipping of foreigners in foreign ports to catch fish under the American flag, and to enjoy the wages due to our enlightened and beneficent tariff.

But the increased cost of fishing does not end here. Bait is one of the things wanted for successful angling on the Grand Banks, and it is obtained best and cheapest by trade with the shore fishermen. It was pointed out that bait was neither fuel nor water, but it was answered that the shore fishermen would paddle their canoes out to the fishing fleet, and do the trading outside the three-mile limit. Now, it appears that the Canucks will not do anything of the sort, and if they would their Government would not let them. At some of the bait-producing stations the shore fishermen have held meetings, and passed resolutions that they will not sell bait to people who tax their fish one cent per pound. Moreover, there is a confounded cruiser sailing along the coast, inspecting the three-mile limit and warning off trespassers. To make matters worse, the Committee of Ways and Means propose to abolish the duties on fish, together with those on salt, lumber, and wool.

The consoling part of the business is that there is no prospect of national irritation growing out of the enforcement of the Treaty of 1818. The fishermen may be put to additional expense by reason of the abrogation of the Washington Treaty, but the public understand that it is their own kettle of fish. They have got their affairs in the shape they wanted. They have flung up their heels at Mr. Bayard. They have got their tariff on fish. The nation has consented to be taxed one cent per pound on its fish-balls for their benefit, and is prepared to see the end of the game with entire good humor. Even the Irish contingent is singularly unmoved by the crisis, being perhaps more interested in Mr. Gladstone's scheme for home rule than in the profits of the fishing season.

THE FOURTH OF MARCH.

Most people suppose that the 4th of March is designated by the Constitution of the United States as the day when every Congress shall end and every new administration begin; many cherish a traditional superstition that it was selected, after much mathematical investigation, because it was found to be the only day in the almanac which on these constitutional quadrennials will never come on Sunday. Few—and they are very few—know that the members of the great convention throughout the 100 days of their stupendous work never so much as gave the 4th of March a thought, and that the Constitution itself is absolutely silent as to the day when Congresses shall expire and the transfer of executive power take place. Why, then, is the 4th of March, which is not named in the Constitution, nor in any statute or resolution of the time, and which was not selected by the men who framed the Constitution—why is it our constitutional inauguration day? And why will an amendment to the Constitution be necessary to substitute another?

The Constitution, which is remarkable for its masterly generalizations and the absence of definitions and details, made no provision whatever for setting the new Government of the United States agoing. The makers, indeed, knew not the year, much less the day or the hour, when it would be adopted by the discordant States. All that they could do was to build the framework of the future Government and leave the rest to the States and the Continental Congress. "The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year"; the President "shall hold his office during the term of four years," are the only provisions which the Constitution contains on the subject. How, then, came the 4th of March to be so important a day in American history?

The Constitution was to take effect so soon as it should be ratified by nine States; and the Continental Congress was charged with the responsibility of inaugurating the infant Government. On the 13th of September, 1788, when Congress convened in New York, it appeared that eleven States had ratified the Constitution. Accordingly the Continental Congress—

> "Resolved, That the *first Wednesday in January* next be the day for appointing electors in the several States which, before the said day, shall have ratified the Constitution; that the *first Wednesday in February* next be the day for the electors to assemble in their respective States and vote for a President; and that the *first Wednesday in March* next be the time, and the present seat of Congress the place, for commencing proceedings under the said Constitution."

The first Wednesday in March chanced to be the 4th!

The first two scenes upon the programme came and went at the appointed times; the electors were chosen and the electors cast the electoral vote; but the first Wednesday of March found only a handful of Senators and Representatives assembled and either house without a quorum. Again and again the two houses adjourned for the want of a quorum; so that it was not until the 6th of April that the electoral vote was counted and the first President found to be unanimously elected. But the city of New York was then the seat of government, and Washington was then at Mount Vernon. It required three weeks to carry the official announcement to Virginia and bring the Chief Magistrate back. And thus it happened that the 30th of April was the day of the first inauguration.

It will be observed that the Constitution said then as it says now, "the President shall hold his office during the term of four years." It did not say that he should hold his office during the term of four years from the day when Congress should be directed to commence proceedings, nor did it even provide that the Congressional term of office and the Presidential term of office should begin on the same day. Yet Washington did not "*hold his office* during the term of four years." His first term was only about three years and ten months. Conceding that the holding of the office could have been in part constructive within the intent of the Constitution, it would nevertheless seem that a strong legal argument might have been made to show that such a constructive holding could not have been carried back further than the day when the vote was counted and the result declared, the 6th of April. We are inclined to think that many modern statesmen—the late Mr. William M. Tweed for example—would have taken that view of the case. We are almost persuaded to believe that when the 4th of March, 1793, came around, Mr. Tweed would have blandly but firmly refused to budge, and would have philosophically inquired what they were going to do about it. Indeed, we do not hesitate to say that his reverence for the Constitution would not even have allowed him to compromise on the 6th of April, but that he would have dispensed offices and patronage unflinchingly until the hour of noon on the 30th. Whether any doubt arose in 1793, and whether the good sense and self-abnegation of Washington settled the matter for the country without discussion, is, so far as our hasty researches go, unwritten history. One thing, however, is certain, that the first inauguration of the President did not take place until the 30th day of April, 1789.

During the last eleven years there have been many centennial celebrations, ranging from the Battle of Lexington to the Evacuation of New York. But one of the most notable, second only to that of the Declaration of Independence, if it be second to any, remains to be celebrated—the centennial of our Constitutional Government. To celebrate it on the 4th of March, 1889, will be to celebrate the fact that but a handful of Senators and Representatives assembled in New York in 1789, and that neither of the houses of Congress had a quorum. The constitutional government of the country certainly did not begin then. It began on Thursday, the 30th of April, 1789, at the moment when Chancellor Livingston, turning from administering the oath of office, proclaimed to the throng of excited citizens below, "Long live George Washington, President of the United States."

It was the remarkable fate of Washington to be foremost in the three great vicissitudes of our national infancy—the war for independence, the construction of a national government, the first administration of our national affairs. The schoolboy knows the fact that he was Commander-in-Chief throughout the Revolution and the first President after the formation of the Federal Government; but men have too often overlooked the fact that the first signature affixed to the Constitution was that of George Washington, President of the Convention. The "first in war, first in peace" of Henry Lee was not florid rhetoric, but philosophical fact.

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The approaching centennial of Washington's first inauguration will give the American people a marvellous opportunity to stamp his name afresh on the Constitution which he was foremost in formulating. As every intelligent man knows, the short session of Congress has been the legislative season for the ripening of everything that was evil in our national legislation. The forced adjournment which takes place on every alternate 4th of March is a convenience to nobody; for it is still winter at the seat of government, a most unpropitious time for members to break up household arrangements and travel to distant homes. The inauguration day, moreover, has become a wonderful national holiday, which brings visitors from Maine and New Mexico, from States south of the Potomac and from States west of the Rocky Mountains, and is a matter of interest to every man and woman who can read a newspaper. In a word, sentiment and convenience and common sense unite in approving the Constitutional Amendment which shall substitute the 30th of April for the 4th of March. Its adoption will enable us most fitly to celebrate the great event, and the love and reverence of the American people cannot take better or more practical or more enduring form than by inaugurating the centennial President on the day which witnessed the inauguration of Washington. Their thanks are due to Mr. Winthrop for having brought the idea before Congress in his monument oration, and to Senator Ingalls for having introduced the amendment, and they will watch with some solicitude the action or non-action of Senator Hoar and the Committee on Privileges and Elections, in whose keeping the matter now rests.

THE WARNING OF MR. MANNING'S CASE.

Secretary Manning's break-down from sheer overwork is another solemn and impressive warning of the dangers to which the customs of official life in Washington constantly expose both the Government and the country. We presume nobody heard of Mr. Manning's sudden illness without asking himself whether other officers, and notably the President, were not exposed to a similar calamity through similar causes. The demands which the merely necessary duties of administration now make on the President and the members of the Cabinet are as much as even the most vigorous man, at the age at which men usually reach these positions, can possibly bear. To read all the documents which have to be read, and see all the people who have to be seen, in order to carry on the Government at all, are as much as, and even more than, the average American man, over forty and of strong constitution, is equal to. Our system of vacating offices at the end of four years, or on the incoming of a new Administration, makes of itself a tremendous strain on the strength of the officer who has any share in filling them. In no other Government in the world is any such thing known. No officer as highly placed as the American President is compelled to hold innumerable interviews and read innumerable letters about petty places in the public service. Such cases never come near Mr. Gladstone, or Bismarck, or Grévy, or Freycinet. After the places are filled comes the work of supervision, or, in other words, of seeing that the incumbents do their duty, and getting rid of them if they do not do it. And then there are our relations with foreign Powers and the relations of the Executive with the other branches of the Government to be looked after, and innumerable questions of internal law and police arising under the Constitution and Congressional legislation to be examined and comprehended, even if no immediate action has to be taken on them.

All these things mean constant labor at the desk. All the hours of the day in which any man who means to do his work efficiently ought to work, are insufficient for them, and they involve that most exhausting process for brain and nerves—incessant passage from one subject to another, and incessant efforts to keep hold of widely differing and often complicated details. But Washington traditions add to them another duty which is not administrative but purely social—the duty of gratifying the curiosity of travelling sight-seers. The cheap and easy travelling of our day brings thousands of persons to Washington in the course of the year, some for business, and some for pleasure, and not one of them goes away without what is called "paying his respects" at the White House—that is, shaking hands with the President. This involves for this functionary, we believe, now, two hours a day for three days in the week, in a crowded and ill-ventilated room, and it is performed for the sole purpose of gratifying the curiosity of people who have not the smallest claim on the President's time. He is no more bound to exhibit himself to those who find time and money to go to Washington, than he is bound to travel over the great railroad lines and hold levees at every station. It is all done in obedience to an old feeling that an American President must not be inaccessible to plain people. Against this we have not a word to say if accessibility to sight-seers in Washington does not involve injustice to the rest of the community—that is, does not take away from the nation at large the time and strength for which it pays, and which are its just due. We maintain that it does, and that unless the United States can provide their Government with a stronger and more enduring breed of men than has yet appeared on earth, the demands on the Washington officials will have before long to be thoroughly overhauled and inexorably cut down. The office-seekers and the curious will both have to be sifted, and confined to times and seasons in a way which is now unknown.

What increases the danger is, that only a very small proportion of the men of sedentary occupations in the United States have yet become fully alive to the dangers to health produced by hard work combined with plenty of food and drink, without fresh air and regular exercise. Exercise as a necessity for a sedentary man's existence and efficiency, is, in fact, as yet only recognized by a small body in the large cities. In the country towns, nearly every man's ambition is to be known as a gluttonous worker. What he is most disposed to boast of is his custom of sticking to his desk or store fourteen or fifteen hours a day. When he has passed forty under this régime, and begins to put up masses of soft flesh and consume ice-water by the gallon, the doctors know that trouble is brewing; but as long as he can attend to his business, and cannot afford "to go to Europe," he does not mind what they say, and gradually active exertion in the open air becomes odious to him; so he saunters on through life, until some fine day something snaps in the machinery, and he is put on the list of invalids. In private life there is no help for this, and it is of little consequence to anybody but the man's family or his business partners; but men in public life are responsible for what athletes call their "condition" to the whole people.

THE BERNE INTERNATIONAL-COPYRIGHT CONFERENCE.

The proceedings of the second International Conference at Berne have been published in a folio volume of eighty-one pages, entitled 'Actes de la 2me Conférence internationale pour la protection des œuvres littéraires et artistiques réunie à Berne du 7 au 18 Septembre, 1885.' The title of the first year's volume reads "pour la protection des droits d'auteur," but the French delegates claimed that the expression "des droits d'auteur" had, in France, a special and limited signification, namely, the remuneration due to a dramatic author for the representation of his play, and suggested the use of the words "de la propriété littéraire et artistique" as conveying in French the meaning expressed by the German "Urheberrecht" and the English "copyright." Upon the recommendation of the Swiss delegation, the term used in the title of the volume was adopted, although notice was taken of the fact that it does not exactly express the intention of the Conference, which is not to protect the works, but the authors. This object is more distinctly stated in the amended first article of the final draft convention, which reads, "The contracting countries are constituted into a union for the protection of the rights of authors over their literary and artistic works."

It is of interest to note the progress made towards this union by comparing the representation at this Conference with that at the preceding one. In 1884 thirteen countries, counting Austria-Hungary as one state, were represented by twenty delegates, of which those from four states were not active; but the final protocol, in which the individual delegates recommend that a union be constituted for the protection of the rights of authors, was signed by eighteen delegates, representing eleven states; the two delegates from Paraguay and San Salvador, only, not feeling authorized to sign. The countries conspicuous by their absence were Denmark, Russia, Spain, Portugal, Greece, Rumania, Servia, Turkey, the South American States, and the United States. At the 1885 Conference we find that two states have withdrawn, San Salvador and Austria-Hungary. The first is an unimportant country, and as regards the latter, there is good reason to believe that it will ultimately join the proposed union, such being, at least, the opinion expressed in German publications. This belief may be partially based upon the action of the Austrian Parliament, which has shown advanced views upon the subject of authors' rights by enacting, in April, 1884, a liberal copyright law, granting protection to literary property during the lifetime of the author and fifty years after his death. In place of the two absent states, six additional states were represented, Spain, Italy, Tunis, Honduras, the Argentine Republic, and the United States; the delegates from the two latter countries, however, as well as those from Belgium and Paraguay, being only delegates *ad audien-*

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dum. Costa Rica, though having agreed to take part in the Conference, failed to send a delegate. In addition to the gain of active delegations from four new states, the delegates from some of the states formerly represented attended in 1885 with enlarged powers. England, instead of one silent representative, as in 1884, sent two delegates with full authority to act; and their intelligent participation in the proceedings effected considerable modifications in the final draft of a convention.

The changes induced by the discussions in the Conference of 1885 in the draft convention which it is now proposed to submit as the definitive text of an international treaty during the coming September, were largely verbal, resulting, in most cases, in greater simplicity and directness and consequent clearness of statement. But the part taken in the deliberations by the delegates from the Powers for the first time actively represented, led to important alterations in certain of the articles of convention. The first article has been quoted above. To the second article, which declares that authors of one country are to enjoy for their published or unpublished works in the other countries the rights which the respective laws grant to natives—for a term, however, not exceeding that granted, and only after the accomplishment of the formalities prescribed by law in the country of origin—the important addition was made, at the instance of Mr. Adams, the British delegate, declaring that "the country of origin of the work is that in which the work is first published; or, if such publication takes place simultaneously in several countries of the Union, that one of them in which the shortest term of protection is granted by law." The author's country is considered the country of origin of unpublished works; and, according to article three, the stipulations apply to publishers of works issued in one of the countries of the Union, although the authors belong to a country not a party to the Union. Article four defines the expression "literary and artistic works" to comprehend "every production whatsoever in the literary, scientific, or artistic domain which can be published by any mode of impression or reproduction." The two articles, five and six, relating to translations occasioned considerable discussion. The conclusion arrived at in 1884 was that translations should be protected for ten years after publication, provided the translation was issued within three years from first publication of original work. The present articles grant to authors or their legal representatives the exclusive right of making or authorizing translations for a term of ten years from the publication of the original work, always counting from the last day of the year of publication, after which time the translating right falls into the public domain and the translator cannot oppose the translation of the same work by other writers. During this period authorized translations are protected as original works. As regards the reproduction of articles from newspapers and journals, or of extracts from books, the agreement of 1884 was so loosely worded that it afforded a loophole for wholesale appropriation, and it was therefore recast in 1885, to the effect that such reproduction or translation of extracts from periodicals is allowable unless the authors or publishers have expressly forbidden it. A general prohibition at the beginning of each number is sufficient, but this cannot in any case apply to political articles or news articles; and, according to article eight, "as regards the liberty of extracting portions from literary or artistic works for use in publications destined for educational or scientific purposes, or for chrestomathies, the matter is to be decided by the legislation of the different countries of the Union," or by special treaties. The stipulations of article two apply to the public representation of dramatic or dramatico-musical works, whether published or not; and to the public performance of musical works unpublished, or, if published, when bearing upon the title-page or at the beginning the author's prohibition of performance; and the authors of such works are, during the existence of their ten-years' exclusive right of translation, protected against the unauthorized public representation of translations. According to article ten, adaptations, arrangements of music, etc., are specially included among illicit productions; but it is agreed that in the application of this article "the tribunals of the various countries of the Union will, if there is occasion, conform themselves to the provisions of their respective laws." Article eleven provides that for authors of works protected to be considered as such, it will be sufficient that their names be indicated on the work in the accustomed manner; and, as concerns anonymous and pseudonymous works, the publisher is entitled to protect the rights belonging to, and is without other proof reputed to be the legal representative of, the author. The tribunals may, however, require the production of a certificate from the competent authority to the effect that the formalities prescribed by law in the country of origin have been accomplished. Pirated works may be seized upon importation, conformably to the domestic law of each state.

The remaining articles, thirteen to twenty-one, relate to the convention of union, and may be briefly summarized as providing that the convention applies to all works in which copyright exists in the country of origin at the moment of its coming into force, which is to be three months after the exchange of ratifications; that it may be submitted to revisions in order to introduce amendments; that it shall not affect the maintenance of existing conventions between the contracting states, provided always that such conventions confer upon authors more extended rights than those granted by the Union, or contain stipulations which are not contrary to this convention, and upon the same conditions the countries of the Union may enter into special arrangements with each other; that it does not abridge the rights of each country to control or prohibit the circulation of works in regard to which the exercise of such right is found necessary; and that countries which grant by their domestic law the protection of rights secured by this convention, shall be admitted to accede to it on request to that effect, and shall have the right to accede thereto for their colonies or foreign possessions. The final protocol contains some supplementary stipulations in regard to the admission of photographs and choregraphic works to the benefits of the convention; and also an understanding that "the manufacture and sale of instruments for the mechanical reproduction of musical airs which are copyright, shall not be considered as constituting an infringement of musical copyright." Finally, the protocol arranges for the establishment of the "Office of the International Union for the Protection of Literary and Artistic Works," which is to be placed under the authority of the Swiss Government, the expenses of conducting it to be shared by the contracting states in proper proportion. It will be the duty of this office, the official language of which will be French, to collect all kinds of information relative to the protection of the rights of authors, and arrange and publish it; to study questions of general utility likely to be of interest to the Union; and, by the aid of documents placed at its disposal by the different administrations, to edit a periodical in the French language treating questions concerning the Union. An edition in one or more other languages may be authorized if experience should show this to be requisite.

To the foregoing *précis* it should be added that the British Parliament has printed as a blue book, under the heading, 'Switzerland, No. 1' (1886), the "Correspondence respecting the formation of an International Copyright Union." The contents, owing to numerous enclosures, are more varied than the title promises, and possess considerable interest. The correspondence opens with a note from the Consul-General for Switzerland, at London, to Earl Granville, enclosing a circular note from the Swiss Federal Council inviting participation in a diplomatic conference at Berne in 1884, with a view to protecting literary and artistic property. After an exchange of letters between the Foreign Office and the Board of Trade, Mr. Adams, Minister at Berne, was directed to attend the Conference as a British delegate, but in a purely consultative capacity, with no power to vote or to bind his Government to accept any views which might be adopted by the Conference. He seems to have given intelligent hearing to the proceedings, and to have become warmly interested in the international Union proposed. On September 26, 1884, he writes:

"The result of this Conference is, in my opinion, that the Union will be founded. I cannot, of course, surmise how many Powers will sign the first convention. That France and Germany, Sweden and Switzerland will do so, I can hardly doubt. I am aware that, unfortunately, in the present state of our copyright law, Great Britain is unable as yet to enter into any such Union, but I cannot help, with all due deference, urging upon Her Majesty's Government the expediency of taking measures for amending that law. This course, I venture to presume, must ultimately be adopted. Should it not rather be sooner than later?"

On the 9th of May, 1885, in response to a second circular of invitation from the Swiss Government, Mr. Adams was authorized to attend the 1885 Conference, but, as in the preceding year only in a consultative capacity. In July, however, Mr. F. R. Daldy, on behalf of the Copyright Association, accompanied by Mr. Cotter Morison as a representative of the Incorporated Society of Authors, was allowed an interview with Mr. Bourke (who was one of the Copyright Commissioners in 1875), in order to point out the reasons why great importance was attached to England's being allowed to take part in the discussions, and also in order to submit a memorandum of the vital points apparently necessary to secure the efficiency of the convention which, Mr. Daldy thought, would result from these deliberations. The meeting with Messrs. Daldy and Morison evidently produced an effect; and when, August 13, Mr. West, at Washington, telegraphed, in reply to a question from the Marquis of Salisbury, Earl Granville's successor, that the United States Minister at Berne would be appointed United States delegate to the Conference, Mr. Adams received instructions, August 18, that he was authorized to attend, with power to take part in the discussions and to vote, but with the understanding that his part in the proceedings would be *ad referendum*, and that any resolutions arrived at by the Conference would be subject to subsequent approval or rejection by his Government. In the same letter he is instructed to be especially careful to notice and report any views which might be expressed by the United States delegate; and, in accordance with these instructions, the report made, September 25, by the British delegates says: "We have given special attention to the bearing which the draft convention might have upon any negotiations between Great Britain and the United States." The report quotes the statement made by Mr. Winchester as to the position of the United States in regard to the question of international copyright. This statement, which we prefer to give in our own translation, was made by Mr. Winchester in his address before the Conference, Sep-

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tember 17. After defining his position and functions as the United States delegate, he says: "Meanwhile, I believe that I do not overstep the limits of my powers in saying that the Government of the United States is favorably disposed towards the principle that the author of a literary or artistic work, whatever be his nationality and whatever the place of production, should be everywhere protected upon the same footing as the citizens or subjects of each nation."

"In view of this statement," the report continues, "we do not think that there can be any ground for the apprehension which has been expressed in some quarters, that an immediate amendment of English law, with the view to the entry of Great Britain into the projected Union, would have a prejudicial effect in regard to any copyright negotiations with the United States. In fact, from the friendly interest in the objects of the Conference which has been expressed by the United States delegate, we are justified in anticipating that when once the Union has been formed, and has been acceded to by the more important European countries, the United States will before long feel it difficult to abstain from becoming a party to it also."

It seems scarcely honest for the Department of State to instruct its delegate to say that this Government believes in the principle that the author should be protected without regard to his nationality or to the place of production, when fifty years of almost continuous efforts in Congress have failed to result in the first step towards the *practice* of such a principle. We might almost suppose that Mr. Winchester's own sense of right and justice had unconsciously led him to misread his instructions here. And in spite of Mr. Adams's seemingly frank acceptance of the statement as showing the true position of the United States in regard to the question, we could almost suspect a covert allusion to the truth when he translates the statement to read, "The United States Government is kindly disposed in *principle* [italics ours] towards the proposition that the author should be protected," etc.

In concluding their report, the British delegates urge the importance of a complete codification and amendment of the copyright law, and point out that if this were done during the present session of Parliament it would enable Great Britain to become one of the original signatory Powers of the convention for the creation of an International-Copyright Union, and it is pleasant to note that the last letter contained in the volume is a communication to the Foreign Office from the Board of Trade, stating that the latter will be prepared to submit to Parliament a bill embodying the necessary changes in the existing copyright law. In addition to the various letters, this volume contains copies of the original draft conventions of the Berne Conferences of 1884 and 1885, with English translations; copies of the various circular notes from the Swiss Government, with translations; and Mr. Daldy's "Scheme of a bill to consolidate and amend the law relating to copyright," which is set out at length.

Correspondence.

SOUTH CAROLINA AND THE BLAIR BILL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A friend has just brought to my attention your issues of the 4th, 11th, and 18th inst., in which you have placed me upon the witness-stand in your suit against the Blair bill. As I am now, and have always been, an unfaltering advocate of the policy which that bill seeks to carry out, the use you have made of a sentence taken from my annual report astonishes me and all those who know my pronounced views on the subject. It is said, and with some appearance of truth, that almost any kind of heterodoxy may be fortified by a text from the Bible. You have shown, in the articles indicated, how completely an isolated sentence from a very humble, uninspired production may be made to serve a purpose quite opposed to the one intended.

You quote from my annual report for the school year 1883–84 the following sentence: "In addition to these drawbacks, the discussion of the policy of Federal aid for the suppression of illiteracy revived into active expression all the latent, or hitherto silent, opposition to the common-school system of the State"; and you use it as "emphatic testimony" to fortify your argument against the passage of the Blair bill. While I do not entertain the idea that so respectable and influential a publication as the *Nation* could stoop to a wilful perversion of any statement, yet I think that, in your zeal to make headway in your controversy, you have unintentionally ignored three considerations necessary to a proper interpretation of that sentence. These are: 1st, where the report was written; 2d, to whom it was addressed; and, 3d, the antecedent and related circumstances of the subject-matter.

The system of free public schools in this State was the creation of the Constitution of 1868, and, like that instrument and most of the statutes enacted under it, was received with great disfavor by the white people of the State, on account of the character of the men then controlling public affairs. After the political revolution of 1876, the people began to take increasing interest in the public schools, and the enrolment of children in them grew larger year by year. There remained, nevertheless, quite a number of persons in the State bitterly opposed to the whole system—some on theoretical grounds, and many on the practical fact that they were taxed to educate the non-tax-paying mass of negroes. This opposition had ceased, however, to create much friction in the working of the school system until the discussion of the Blair bill began in Congress. A distinguished representative from this State had spoken in opposition to the bill on the floor of the United States Senate, and his views had been further disseminated by a newspaper interview. At once all the *irreconcilables*, whether occupying the editorial chair of a county newspaper or the dry-goods box in front of the village store, finding themselves in the shadow of a great name, began to rail at the public-school system of the State. To them the Blair bill meant increase of the facilities for public instruction, and to this they were opposed. Their cry was, "The public schools are a nuisance"; "Educate a negro and you spoil a laborer," etc., etc.

Writing the report in this State from an interior view of the condition of things, and addressing the two houses of the General Assembly, every member of which was cognizant of all these circumstances, I used the sentence you quote without the fear, or even the risk, of misinterpretation. Had I been addressing an outside audience, I would have said, "The *opposition* to the policy of Federal aid developed in Congress," etc., etc. Thus interpreted, or thus framed, the sentence will not serve very well the purpose of your argument.

Will you be kind enough to give me the benefit of this explanation, and thus set me *rectus in curia* with your large circle of intelligent readers?

Asbury Coward,
State Supt. of Education, S. C.

Columbia, S. C., March, 1886.

[The fact that Mr. Coward personally favors the Blair bill only lends force to the strong argument which his official report presented against it. We said (March 4) that "the mere talk about Federal aid" had exerted a "disastrous effect" upon the cause of public education in South Carolina, and, as evidence, cited the striking sentence regarding this matter in the Superintendent's report for 1884. Mr. Coward now says that it would have been better if he had framed the sentence differently, and had said that "the opposition to the policy of Federal aid developed in Congress" caused the trouble in South Carolina. But this explanation in no wise affects the lesson to be deduced from the incident. If the measure had never been proposed, no opposition to the policy would have been developed in Congress, and without this opposition in Congress, as Mr. Coward now says, "all the latent or hitherto silent opposition to the common-school system of the State" would not have been "revived into active expression." If there had been no "talk about Federal aid," there would have been no revival of the Bourbon opposition to the public-school system, which opposition, as Mr. Coward confesses, "had ceased to create much friction until the discussion of the Blair bill began in Congress."—Ed. Nation.]

IMPORTATIONS OF CARPET WOOL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In answer to your correspondent about carpet wool and Russian wool in your paper of March 25, we refer to the official reports of direct importations, as made by the Treasury Department. He will find that the imports of carpet wool for the year 1885 were 25,610,177 pounds more than those of 1884; these figures being published in No. 6 of the "Summary Statement of Imports" for each year made for December, 1884, and December, 1885. These are for *calendar* years. The reports for fiscal years, ending June 30 in each case, do not include the great rush of carpet wools coming in since July 1, 1885, although they show a large advance in 1883-4 and 1884-5 over former years. Mr. Bond's figures as quoted are taken *from the warehouse and withdrawal accounts*, and are not the *direct imports*. On the 1st of July, 1885, the stock of carpet wools in bonded warehouse was 11,412,023 pounds, *none of which was included in Bond's figures*. The increase of carpet wool imported in 1885 over 1884 was more than 50 per cent., as follows:

1884, calendar year	47,672,926	pounds.
1885, " "	73,283,103	"
Increase (53 72-100 per cent)	25,610,177	"

For the fiscal years 1883-4 and 1884-5 the direct imports were:

1883-4	52,761,170 pounds,	value	$6,559,762
1884-5	56,339,530 "	"	5,947,495

In both cases the increase was great over 1882-3, in which only 40,130,322 pounds were imported, and the last half of the year 1885 brought the largest importation and more than twice as much as in any former half year—making the quantity for the whole year 1885 73,283,103 pounds, or fully twice as much as in any year previous to 1882. Does not this amply prove the asserted increase in carpet-wool importations? The official reports of the Treasury Department also show that the imports of carpet wool from Russia were five times as great in the fiscal years 1884-5 as they were in 1879-80, and 30 per cent. greater in the last year, 1884-5, than they were in 1883-4, as follows:

1879–80	3,322,700 pounds.	Value, $375,053.
1880–81	4,400,151 pounds.	Value, 631,326.
1881–82	10,933,587 pounds.	Value, 1,465,765.
1882–83	12,569,523 pounds.	Value, 1,647,468.
1883–84	12,588,840 pounds.	Value, 1,422,020.
1884–85	16,151,392 pounds.	Value, 1,614,962.

Very respectfully,

James W. M. Newlin.
Dallas Sanders.

New York, March 29, 1886.

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FIAT JUSTITIA!

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Can you spare me room for a not unimportant question?

Heartily desirous of justice for Ireland, and for Britain also, I would ask if it will be just to tax the already overtaxed and overlandlorded laborers of England and Scotland, employed and unemployed, in order to purchase the land of Ireland for Irish farmers. I say farmers, not seeing very clearly how the Irish laborer is to be benefited by the transaction. W. J. Linton.

New Haven, Conn., March 22, 1886.

[We admit that the question is a difficult one. The arguments in favor of the purchase are, first, that the purchase money would be a sort of commutation of the annual expense of protecting the landlords against the peasantry, who hate them, and resist distraint and eviction at their hands. The expense is very heavy, but the English public has for eighty-five years maintained that it was legitimate and in some measure beneficial to the empire.

The second argument is, that the Irish system of land tenure would undoubtedly have been profoundly modified a century ago if the landlords had had to rely on their own strength or skill in dealing with the tenantry—that is, if the Irish had been an independent community. In other words, rackrenting without making improvements on the soil, and tenancy at will, would have disappeared either through a revolution or through fear of a revolution. The Irish landlords, as a class, have, in other words, been defended in the exercise of the powers which have brought on the present crisis for two hundred years by British troops, and have been so defended, for the last forty years, in the teeth of a full exposure of the system by an English Government inquiry, through a Commission known as the Devon Commission, which ought to have brought, but apparently did not bring, a full knowledge of it home to the English public. In fact, we think it would be hard to find in political history a stronger moral claim for compensation than that which the Irish landlords have on the English taxpayers. It is much stronger than that of the West India slaveholders.—Ed. Nation.]

A LITERARY COINCIDENCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "**," in his letter on "A Literary Coincidence" in the *Nation* of March 25, in quoting from Mr. Lowell's article on Gray, published in the *New Princeton Review* for March, and from Mr. Harrison's newly published book, overlooks the fact that Mr. Harrison's book mainly consists of essays republished from the English magazines. The first sentence he quotes originally appeared in the *Nineteenth Century* for March, 1883, the second in the *Fortnightly Review* for April, 1882, and the third in the *Fortnightly Review* for April, 1879. So that, whatever importance may attach to the fact, the priority of publication lies in favor of Mr. Harrison. D. H.

Washington, D. C., March 26, 1886.

JOHN HARVARD AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I see by Mr. Rendle's letter, printed in the last number of the *Nation*, that he has forwarded to you twelve copies of his Harvard pamphlet for distribution among "thinking representative persons." I take the liberty to send you the same number of copies of Mr. Waters's pamphlet, 'John Harvard and His Ancestry,' and also of a reprint from the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* for January, 1886, of Mr. Hassam's article on the subject, a part of which was also printed in the London *Athenæum* of January 2, 1886. If you will kindly distribute them among the recipients of the other pamphlet, they will readily see how shadowy is the claim which Mr. Rendle puts forward, and how much the antiquarian world owes to Mr. Waters for so successfully solving this intricate genealogical problem.—Truly yours,

The Editor of The Register.

Boston, March 27, 1886.

AN EMENDATION OF "MACBETH."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A passage in "Macbeth," act iv, sc. i, ll. 96-100, runs in our text (I adopt Dyce's reading):

> "Sweet bodements! Good!
> Rebellion's head, rise never, till the wood
> Of Birnam rise, and our high-placed Macbeth
> Shall live the lease of nature, pay his breath
> To time and mortal custom."

It cannot be denied that the passage, as it stands, makes a strange impression, so that Fleay and other critics with him believe it to be an interpolation by a foreign hand. Various emendations have been tried, but not satisfactorily. I think the difficulty may be set aside by a slight alteration, which with all humility I submit herewith to the judgment of more competent Shakspere students. I read:

> "Rebellion's head, rise never, till the wood
> Of Birnam rise, and *on's high place* Macbeth
> Shall live," etc.

—'on's' standing for 'on his.' The meaning would be: "These are sweet bodements you give me; for if rebellion's head does not rise until Birnam wood rises, then Macbeth may on his high place, the throne, live the lease of nature," etc. But in spite of all these attempts at easing his troubled mind, he cannot get rid of that horrid thought of *Banquo's* issue filling his place one day. Therefore he adds:

> "Yet my heart
> Throbs to know one thing," etc.

Taken thus, our vexed passage is perfectly in keeping with that which precedes it and with that which follows, and the whole gives good sense.

Theodor Marx.

Speyer, Germany, March 8, 1886.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co. have in press a translation of Octavo Feuillet's 'La Morte,' made by Mr. J. Henry Hager.

Henry George & Co., 16 Astor Place, New York, will publish on April 1 a work by the senior partner in the firm, called 'Protection or Free Trade,' an examination of the tariff question (with special regard to the interests of labor), of which the bias is not in favor of protection.

Miss E. P. Peabody's 'Lectures to Kindergartners' is in the press of D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. announce for immediate publication an abridgment of Kent's 'Commentaries,' edited by Eben Francis Thompson.

Dodd, Mead & Co. will publish an historical story, 'The Captain of the Janizaries,' by James L. Ludlow; 'A Ranchman's Stories,' by Howard Seely; and two new volumes in their series of "Tales from Many Sources."

President Porter's work on Kant's 'Ethics' is now in type, and will be published directly by S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago. They announce, also, 'Geological Studies,' by Prof. Alexander Winchell; and 'Solar Heat, Gravitation, and Sun Spots,' by an anonymous author.

Mr. Austin Dobson has just completed his biography of Richard Steele, and it will soon appear as one of the volumes in the series of "English Worthies," which Mr. Andrew Lang is editing.

Mr. Lewis Carroll, the author of 'Alice in Wonderland,' has republished in a volume entitled 'A Tangled Tale' a series of ten papers, which originally appeared in the *Monthly Packet*, an English periodical. The title is somewhat misleading. There is no "tale" running through the book. It is composed of ten chapters, which are called "knots," and the only bond of connection between them is the reappearance of the same persons. Each "knot" represents some of these persons in a situation which gives an opportunity for the introduction of one or more problems or puzzles of a mathematical or quasi-mathematical nature, of which the reader is supposed to attempt the solution after having exercised his ingenuity in making out what the problem in each case really is. Exactly one-half the volume is occupied by an appendix containing a formal statement of each problem, the answer to it, a statement of the best manner of solving it, remarks and criticisms in regard to the various solutions sent in under assumed names at the time of the original publication of the "knots," and a classification in the order of merit of the names of those who succeeded in giving correct answers. Some of the problems are purely mathematical, and are to be solved by applying the principles and processes of some branch of mathematics, as arithmetic or algebra. Others are mere quibbles or "catches." There is throughout the book a desperate attempt at humor, resulting, as violent efforts at humor generally do, in producing an impression of heaviness and clumsiness. In fact, had it not been for the reputation achieved by Mr. Carroll in his 'Alice' books, we suspect this one would have been left to sleep quietly in the columns of the *Monthly Packet*. The publishers (Macmillan & Co.) have done certainly quite as much as the book deserved to render it attractive. We would, however, warn Mr. Carroll against the dangers of living too long on his acquired capital.

Mr. Morley's 'Diderot,' in two volumes, which closes the series embracing his 'Voltaire' and 'Rousseau,' has now appeared in the beautiful uniform edition undertaken by Macmillan & Co. Nothing has been added to the preface and note of 1878, so that evidently Mr. Morley is unaware of a discussion in the *Nation*, vol. xxvii, pp. 285, 398, which traced almost to its origin the famous speech of Polly Baker attributed to Franklin. It is a small matter, yet Raynal should stand excused for having borrowed in good faith from the *Gentleman's Magazine* the classical specimen of American humor which had imposed on the English editor (first of a long line of victims).

Mr. Theodore Roosevelt's 'Hunting Trips of a Ranchman' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) was essentially a popular work, yet the expensiveness of the first edition put it hopelessly beyond the reach of those whose purses were not long. The publishers have therefore done well to bring it out anew in a cheaper style and form, retaining the woodcuts, but omitting the etchings. An explanatory note referring to the previous edition might have been expected, since etchings are mentioned in Mr. Roosevelt's preface, and may perplex the librarian and bibliographer whose duty it is to know and define a perfect copy.

A. D. F. Randolph & Co. send us two seasonable quarto volumes—'The Blessed Easter-Tide,' and 'An Easter Song,' by Robert Hall Baynes. The first consists of appropriate passages from

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the Scripture narrative, and numerous well-chosen and familiar hymns by authors ancient and modern. Mechanically considered it is conceived and executed in delicate taste. The companion volume adds one more to the dismal failures to substitute fancy lettering for type, and the illustrations are ineffably weak. That one firm should put its imprint on two such examples of how to do and how not to do, passes comprehension.

'The Correspondent,' by James Wood Davidson (D. Appleton & Co.), while it gives the ordinary business forms and habits of letter-writing which one would learn in a counting-room, occupies nearly all of its one hundred pages with directions how to address and to subscribe epistles to titled individuals who, by virtue of birth, custom, or office, have claim to ceremony in approach or withdrawal, from the attorney to the Emperor and the Pope. For the public this knowledge is, generally speaking, superfluous, and its painful setting forth with elaborate distinctions is amusing. Notwithstanding democracy, etiquette survives here in a thousand shades, answering the thousand ways in which man may be more than man, but for the most part, we observe, in English society and the Catholic Church. The little book is innocent enough, but we are constrained to call it misleading in title; for if the matter relating to Scotch aldermen, Earls' sons, English mayors, Sisters of Charity, Dominican monks, monsignors, cardinals, abbesses, kings, queens, and archdeacons, and a hundred or two other functionaries with whom most Americans have no occasion to correspond, were left out, there would be little left except the boards and the preface. The American schoolboy—much more the citizen—may safely be taught mere respectful courtesy, and left to decide for himself between "humbly" and "respectfully," and, though a Catholic, may hesitate to subscribe himself "your subject" to any archeminence whatever.

Miss Margaret Lonsdale, whose 'Sister Dora' was so well received, has published a little review of George Eliot's 'Life' ('George Eliot: Thoughts upon Her Life, Her Books, and Herself,' Scribner & Welford), which is a magazine article in the form of a book, and is entitled to no more attention because it has covers. The hour has gone by when any one without genius can detain the public with criticism of so bewritten a subject.

Nos. 6–9 of Cassell's diminutive "National Library," edited by Prof. Henry Morley, include "The Rivals" and the "School for Scandal"; 'Sermons on the Card,' by Hugh Latimer; Plutarch's lives of Alexander and Cæsar; and Horace Walpole's 'Castle of Otranto.'

Lippincott's Magazine for April introduces what it calls "Our Experience Meetings"—"a sort of public confessional for prominent men and women, of all callings and classes, who feel autobiographically disposed." But we doubt if the new *Forum* have not priority of patent in this device.

The *Rhode Island Historical Magazine* for January (No. 3 of vol. 6) is a full and interesting number, containing the usual genealogical miscellany, and also two reprints of rare publications—one of a chapter from Arthur Brown's sketch of America (1798), the other of Henry Bull's "Memoirs of Rhode Island" (1832-8), with additions and corrections. This last will run through several numbers.

The April number of the *New York Genealogical and Biographical Record* has sketches and portraits of the two Vanderbilts, and of the late Dr. Franklin B. Hough; and portraits of Gen. J. G. Wilson, President of the society whose organ the *Record* is, and of Col. Henry Rutgers—the former in connection with his inaugural address, and the latter in illustration of a paper on the Rutgers family.

The *Library Journal* has opened a bulletin of duplicates for exchange or sale, and books wanted, which is not confined either to librarians (who, however, started the idea) or to subscribers to the *Library Journal*. Yet these, we may hope, will be increased by it.

Science for March 26 accompanies a review of Commander Wyse's 'Le Canal de Panama' with a reproduction of his map of the isthmus, which will be found extremely useful for present and future reference.

M. Georges d'Heylli, who has already published half-a-dozen books about the Comédie-Française, its members and its doings, has now prepared a little monograph on the labors of Mme. Madeleine Brohan (Paris: Tresse & Stock; New York: F. W. Christern). Mme. Brohan, after "creating" the character of the quick-witted and plain-spoken old dowager in M. Pailleron's charming "Monde où l'on s'ennuie," with broad comic effect and humorous subtlety, has now gone on the retired list. M. d'Heylli sketches her career and gives a complete list of her parts. The pamphlet is illustrated by an excellent portrait, etched by M. Lalauze, and by the facsimile of an autograph letter.

Lest some unwary American reader may be tempted to order M. Auguste Baluffe's temptingly named 'Molière Inconnu,' it may be well to quote from the latest number of the *Moliériste* the opinion of its editor that M. Baluffe's book is absolutely worthless, and filled with fantastic and wilful mistakes. The best recent life of Molière in French is that which formed the first volume of M. Louis Moland's new edition of the great dramatist's works—an edition now complete, and likely to remain without a rival until we get the final volume in M. Regnier's incomparable series justly called "Les Grands Écrivains de la France" (Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern).

The letters of M. G. de Molinari to the *Journal des Débats*, written during his third visit to America last summer, have been collected under the title: 'Au Canada et aux Montagnes Rocheuses' (Paris: Reinwald; New York: Christern). The writer has filled out his volume with the letters he wrote to the same journal from Russia in 1882, and from Corsica in 1884. The special occasion of his last journey was the excursion on the new direct line of steamers between France and Canada which the author was invited to join. M. Molinari indulges in the usual chat of newspaper correspondents, with a tendency to touch upon economic and social questions natural enough in the chief editor of the *Journal des Économistes*. He has an avowed sympathy for Riel, and during the whole course of his wanderings he takes every opportunity to urge the advantages of free trade.

The publishers Lecène & Oudin (Paris) have begun a series entitled 'Classiques Populaires,' of which two, 'La Fontaine' and 'Corneille,' both edited by Émile Faguet, have been published. They announce as in preparation 'Victor Hugo' and 'Chateaubriand' by M. Ernest Dupuy, and 'Racine' and 'Lamartine' by M. Jules Lemaitre. The two volumes already issued recount simply the lives of the authors, taking up their principal works, which are analyzed, and from which numerous quotations are given. The volume on La Fontaine selects about sixty of the fables, with a running comment sufficient to give a fair idea of the author. The series, though designed for the young, should find favor with older readers who desire to form or to renew an acquaintance with the chief French classics.

Liberal Germany, through the voice of its ever youthful-hearted poet, Friedrich Bodenstedt, and others, paid a well-merited tribute of respect to the memory of Otto von Corvin (Corvin-Wiersbitzki), at his funeral in Wiesbaden, on the 5th of March. Among German workers and sufferers for the ideas of 1848 he was one of the most courageous and truest. As a journalist and popular historical writer he held an honorable rank, in spite of extreme radicalism and propagandist proclivities. Born in East Prussia, in 1812, he received a military education, and became a lieutenant in the Prussian army, but early left the service and devoted himself to literature. He joined the poet Herwegh, in the spring of 1848, in the rash attempt to republicanize Germany through an invasion of Baden, from France, by a motley band of volunteers. In 1849, during the republican rising in that Grand Duchy which followed the breaking up of the Frankfort Parliament, he was chief of staff of the revolutionary forces in the fortress of Rastatt, down to its surrender to the Prince of Prussia, the present Emperor William. He was sentenced to death by a military tribunal, but the sentence was commuted, and he escaped with six years' close confinement in Bruchsal. On his release from prison he went to London, and in 1861 to Washington, as war correspondent of the Augsburg *Allgemeine Zeitung*, a position which he held to the end of our civil conflict. During the Franco-German war he was employed in the same capacity by the *Neue Freie Presse* of Vienna. Among the more interesting of his writings are 'Illustrirte Weltgeschichte' (written jointly with Held; 4 vols., 1844-51), 'Erinnerungen aus meinem Leben' (4 vols., 1861), 'Geschichte der Neuzeit' (3 vols., 1882-3), and 'Aus dem Zellengefängniss' (1884).

One of our readers in Virginia writes us, apropos of the discussion over the Resolutions of '98, as follows: "*W. C.* Nicholas was Governor of Virginia during the war of 1812. It was his brother George who moved to Kentucky and was prominent in the politics of that State, as another brother, John, was in the State of New York. They were sons of Robert Carter Nicholas, the last Colonial Treasurer and the first Treasurer of the Commonwealth."

By the gift of a generous friend of that institution, the trustees of Smith College, Northampton, will erect this summer an astronomical observatory, the chief instruments of which will be a four-inch meridian circle and an equatorial telescope of eleven inches aperture. The glass for the latter is mounted in the cell by the Clarks, and the construction of the mechanical portions of the telescope, as well as the dome to cover it, is intrusted to a firm in Cleveland well known for its successes in such works. The equipment of the observatory will be well represented in special apparatus, including spectroscopic appliances and arrangements for prosecuting research in astronomical photography. The outfit of the large telescope will be unusually rich in those accessories which facilitate the work of the observer, some of these having been specially planned for this instrument. The specifications of the new observatory and its equipment have been prepared by Professor Todd, of Amherst, and the work on the building and instruments is now in progress.

—The *Atlantic* for April is really distinguished among magazines by having no article that is not interesting. One cuts the leaves to find on every page agreeable and varied reading, and passes with delightful ease across those little thresholds of poetry, so brief that one skips over them almost without knowing it. The freshest topic is "Gouverneur Morris." Mr. Lodge writes a charming study of that brilliant man, whose figure is so exceptional among our Revolutionary patriots because of his humor and satire and worldly penetration; and makes the most of his subject by bringing out this social and modern side of him

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with only incidental allusion to his political services. The contrast Gouverneur Morris affords to the Frenchmen he counselled on the eve of the Terror, is very effective in enforcing on the mind the divergence between '76 in America and '89 in Paris. The singular felicity of Morris's political prophecies, his remarkable position as an adviser of the King's friends, and his peculiar literary touch, give uniqueness to his whole character. The article on the "Reformation of Charity," which pleads for societies whose business it shall be to apply only intellect in the way of alms, provokes comment; but we pass it to call attention to Julian Hawthorne's analysis of the 'Scarlet Letter,' which instructs us in the difference between the stories that are made and those that are born. It is significant, for example, that, while we find ourselves differing from him, it is in the region of life and not of art construction. In fact, one cannot analyze any work of creative imagination without discussing in the end our mortality; while in the case of the ordinary realistic novel, one may despatch its art without the least necessity of going outside the domain of literary mechanics.

—It may be observed by any constant reader of the magazines that they have their fixed phases in the annual round, like society; and *Harper's*, which we noted last month as unloading itself and leaving the heavy furniture behind, fairly opens the summer season with its current number, and begins three new serials in fiction, by Warner, Blackmore, and "the author of John Halifax, Gentleman." Indeed, in Mr. Warner's story it almost cheats us into believing for a half-hour that we are enjoying the pleasant March climate of Old Point, where the "watering-place season" begins, at least for Northerners. It seems a strange experiment that the writer has undertaken—to give us an *amour de voyage* among the resorts of fashion; and one is interested to see whether the sketches of the traveller or those of the social humorist or those of the story-teller will prevail, or whether the whole will get inextricably mixed. To judge by the first long instalment, the localities and not the characters are most in the writer's eye—the society fills a larger place than the lovers. Old Point and Atlantic City are effectively drawn, the artist's sketches helping by their truthfulness and representative quality; but with the Ohio business man, the under-bred wife, the gentle and self-possessed daughter, the unchanging young man of the period, we are tediously acquainted already, and through the caravansaries of new paint, rough boards, staring advertisements, and all that, North and South—what a journey is before them! Nothing less than Mr. Warner's unfailing and unperturbed humor could diffuse entertainment over such scenes and persons, "weary stale, flat, and unprofitable," as is the quotation itself.

—The Concord Lectures, 1885, on Goethe have been (with some few exceptions) reprinted in book form by Ticknor & Co., Boston. The contents of the volume are as diversified as the characters of the members of the school. They offer not a little information—some of it rather desultory—and numerous apt criticisms and suggestions. Emerson's influence still shows itself, as might be expected. Prof. White's paper on "Goethe's Youth" is a careful résumé. Mrs. Sherman's, on "Child Life as Portrayed by Goethe," is sympathetic. Mrs. Julia Ward Howe writes on "Goethe's Women" with a frankness and a sound justice that are positively refreshing. Mr. F. B. Sanborn's view of "Goethe's Relation to English Literature" is a proper one, yet we could have wished for greater fulness of facts. The Rev. Dr. Bartol, in his comparison of Goethe and Schiller, is scarcely just to the latter. His tone is too harsh. As for the more philosophic articles by Thomas Davidson, D. J. Snider, and W. T Harris, we shall not attempt to combat them, neither shall we accept them unqualifiedly. They seem to us to put into Goethe a more systematic philosophy than he himself was aware of. First, last, and at all times, Goethe was a poet and a man of the world: to lose sight of this primal fact for a single moment is to be in danger of critical astigmatism.

—The mention of Goethe leads us to speak of a work which should have been discussed long ere this. In 1874 Karl Engel brought out his 'Bibliotheca Faustiana,' which was for its day an admirable survey of the subject. It has now reappeared as a practically new work, under the title, 'Zusammenstellung der Faust-Schriften vom 16. Jahrhundert bis Mitte 1884' (Oldenburg: Schulze [Schwarz]. 1885). We can give our readers only an approximate idea of the richness of its contents. In 718 pages no less than 2,713 titles of books, pamphlets, magazine articles, plastic or pictorial illustrations, musical compositions, and the like are cited and often discussed at some length. One has to be blessed with polyglottic gifts to read all these titles in their original tongues. At any rate, one can now see for himself what a wonderful part the *Faustsage* has played in European thought. Naturally the most interesting sections are the first, second, fifth, and seventh. The first, entitled "Geschichte, Sammelwerke, und Allgemeines," contains 206 numbers, beginning with Johann Tritheim's 'Epistles,' 1536, and ending with Zahn's 'Cyprian von Antiochien und die deutsche Faustsage,' 1882. Tritheim's 'Epistles' being now excessively rare, Engel has quoted entire the letter dated August 20, 1507, memorable for being the first known mention of "Magister Georgius Sabellicus, Faustus iunior, fons necromanticorum," etc. Those who wish to get a "realistic" sense *à la* Zola of the moral character of the historic Faust will read the last paragraph. Section second, "Volksbücher," has 88 numbers, beginning with the famous *princeps historia* of Spies, Frankfort, 1587, and ending with Simrock's and Noeggerath's reconstructions, 1877 and 1882. Section fifth, "Bühnenstücke," brings before us the playbills of the eighteenth century, the puppet-plays, Marlowe's 'Faustus,' and the Faustian ballets and pantomimes. Section seventh deals with Goethe's 'Faust' in all its shapes, early and late, translations, adaptations, commentaries, etc., 667 numbers, with four pages of lecture courses delivered between 1851-1883 at the German universities and schools. Section tenth, "Tondichtungen," is scarcely less interesting, with its 253 numbers. Not the least valuable part of the work is its index of names and anonyma. In short, this remodelled 'Bibliotheca Faustiana' is an honor to its compiler and to Germany. No earnest devotee of the subject can afford to be without it.

—In speaking last week of the English scheme of Latin pronunciation, as ventilated in the London *Academy*, we forgot to mention that our copy went down with the *Oregon*, but floated up later. This we interpret as an omen of the buoyancy and irrepressible character of the cause: "plunged in the depths, it comes out fairer still," *merses profundo, pulchrior euenit*. The scheme has been very promptly followed up by a letter from Professor Roby, who approves of the method in general, but does not speak in very buoyant terms about its adoption: "It will, I hope, lead to a reform in practice." Mr. Roby then asks some pertinent questions, for the details of which the inquisitive are referred to his letter in the *Academy* of March 13. One point, however, we note, as coinciding exactly with what we named last week as an imperfection in the scheme—the vague way in which quantity is referred to: "Again, I do not know how much is intended to be implied by the committee's selection of *sĕcta, rēctus, tĕctus*, as instances of the Roman [Latin?] pronunciation of vowels before two consonants." Surely something more explicit is desired here. In passing, we may remark that many, perhaps most, of the American colleges have abandoned oral examinations for admission, and substituted paper work. The result is a very slovenly and slipshod pronunciation of Latin. On this point the temperate but decided words of Ritschl may be quoted: "The salvation of the world does not depend on these things; but decently, or not at all: *aber ordentlich! oder gar nicht.*"

—The Treasury Commission for investigating the Coast Survey have addressed a communication to the Secretary of the Treasury in which they say: "In the light of the demonstrated inaccuracy of some of the evidence upon which the Committee relied, and to the extent hereinbefore indicated, it is but just to admit that the criticism of Mr. C. S. Peirce in the Committee's report was unwarranted by the facts." It is understood to be admitted that Mr. Peirce's expenditures were overstated and his work undervalued. The only criticism the Committee continue to maintain is, that he practically conducted his operations as he saw fit. His work has been done under detailed instructions issued by the Superintendent of the Survey, and these instructions have been based upon projects which Mr. Peirce was required to submit each season. We will only add that this finding is what every one acquainted with Mr. Peirce must have expected as the result of a calm and unprejudiced examination.

—French sympathies regarding the minor nations of eastern Europe have of late been showing a strong leaning toward the Slavic side, chiefly to the disadvantage of Magyars and Greeks. Panslavism threatens Germany and her ally, Austria-Hungary: it is but natural that it should be favorably viewed by French writers. Its strongest opponents north of the Balkans are the Hungarians, and south of that range the Greeks. M. Louis Leger, Professor of Slavic Languages at the Collège de France, is probably the most diligent exponent of pro-Slavic sentiments in his country. Of his numerous writings we may mention 'Le Monde Slave' (1873), 'Études Slaves' (1875), 'Histoire de l'Autriche-Hongrie' (1878), 'Nouvelles Études Slaves' (1880), 'La Save, le Danube et le Balkan' (1884), and his latest publication, 'La Bulgarie' (1885). M. Leger's knowledge of Slavic things is both extensive and sound, being based in part on personal observation and connections. His friendly bias, however, colors almost every page of his books. The last named, which contains mainly literary sketches—though it requires a flight of the imagination to discover matter for both a "Renaissance littéraire des Bulgares" and a "Littérature bulgare contemporaine"—naturally applauds the union of the two Bulgarias effected by the revolution, or *coup d'état*, of September 18, 1885, but abstains from alluding to the leading actors in that lively little drama. It eulogizes the political abilities of the Bulgarians—a nation which played so conspicuous a part in the history of southeastern Europe in the earlier periods of the Middle Ages, but, after the Ottoman advance, almost disappeared as an ethnic individuality from the scene of history, and as late as sixty years ago (before the Russian armies crossed the Balkans under Diebitsch) was unknown as a people to the greatest writers on the Slavic past and present, such as Kopitar, Dobrovsky, and Schafarik. M. Leger deplores Servia's blindness and

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selfish action, but puts the guilt of her hostility to Bulgaria on Austro-Hungarian shoulders. Greece he treats in a less friendly spirit than Turkey herself.

MAINE'S POPULAR GOVERNMENT.—II.

Popular Government: Four Essays. By Sir Henry Sumner Maine. London: John Murray; New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1885.

ONE source of Maine's power must be obvious to any man endowed with the slightest taste for letters. The author of 'Ancient Law' possesses a more perfect literary style than any living English writer. The very perfection of his mastery, not only of language but of statement—there are writers, like Froude, for instance, who have an admirable command of words and yet cannot state facts or arguments with clearness—is the only thing which ever makes the world forget the admirable quality of Maine's style. It has no affectations; it has no unevenness; it has no dryness; it has no hardness. The words used seem the most natural means for conveying the thoughts or suggestions of the writer. Readers feel as if they knew at once what the author meant, and yet they are not oppressed with that sense of emphatic and irritating clearness which is as trying to human patience and temper as is verbosity or obscurity. The opening pages of 'Popular Government' supply as good a specimen of Maine's literary skill as can be found in his writings. He starts from the text that "the blindness of the privileged classes in France to the Revolution which was about to overwhelm them, furnishes some of the best-worn commonplaces of modern history"; he shows how untenable is the idea, based on our subsequent knowledge, that the French *noblesse* displayed any extraordinary want of foresight, and ends by leading us up to the conclusion that future historians may wonder as much over the blindness of the unprivileged classes in England as we are accustomed to wonder at the blindness exhibited by the privileged nobility of France. Now the point for notice is, for our purpose, not the truth or the untruth of this conclusion, but the wonderful and perfectly legitimate art with which Maine leads his disciples up to the point of view from which he wishes them to contemplate democratic government. Not a word is wasted, no direct appeal is made to argument; but intelligent readers have hardly read through a third of our author's first essay before they are made to realize the uncertainty of all political dogmas, and to feel that our present faith in democracy may be as misplaced as was the easy confidence of the French nobility, who, in the firm belief that they were advancing towards a political millennium, followed the path which suddenly led them into the midst of the Reign of Terror. Our teacher, like an even greater master of style, winds into his subject "like a serpent," and leads his pupils on to the conclusions at which he wishes them to arrive by a process of literary persuasion. He does not irritate his readers by arguing them out of their opinions; he does not offend them by the explanatory condescension of professorial exposition. He rather encourages them to follow out the train of thoughts which naturally come into their minds. Thus his pupils feel, not that they have been converted from dogmatic radicalism by Sir Henry Maine, but that he has revealed to them the fact of their and his conversion.

This command of style is no light matter, for it is command of rhetoric, and good rhetoric means insight into human nature. But gifts of style would not be sufficient to account for the way in which Maine wins over educated men to sympathy with new and (in the case of his last book) unwelcome conclusions. Sir Henry Maine, besides his rhetorical facility, possesses two noteworthy talents, which would be of themselves almost sufficient to explain his literary success. He has, in the first place, the keenest eye for the striking and interesting sides of any subject which he has in hand. This is the quality which gives the extraordinary merit to his 'Ancient Law.' Much of it refers to matters which, though in 1861 they were novelties to Englishmen, had long been discussed on the Continent. But our author gave new life to old topics by omitting unnecessary details and tedious discussions, and dwelling exclusively on the important and general inferences suggested by the history of Roman law. It is preëminently characteristic of this mode of treatment that Sir Henry Maine rarely if ever cites authorities. We do not ourselves censure this omission of references, though it is not without its evils: we call attention to it simply as a trait characteristic of a teacher who makes it his object—and the aim is in itself a perfectly legitimate one—not so much to convey information as to arouse public attention to new ideas. Details are out of place when the object of the painter is to impress the imagination with the large outlines of his subject.

Sir Henry Maine possesses, in the second place, inexhaustible suggestiveness. It would be hard to draw from any of his works, and certainly from his last publication, a list of definite principles which he systematically defends. In this respect he is utterly unlike reasoners such as Mr. Justice Stephen, the late Mr. Greg, or John Mill. Sir Henry Maine can argue, and argue in his way with great force; but he is hardly an argumentative writer in the sense in which this term can be applied to these three distinguished authors. He does not rely for the effect which he produces so much on systematic reasoning as on the force of statement and suggestion. The result is, that while no one can read 'Popular Government' without feeling, and in our judgment justly feeling, that his faith in democratic institutions, though it may not be overthrown, has received a shock, yet none but the most skilful controversialists would be able to put in a fair and quite accurate form the propositions which the treatise is meant to enforce. Propositions are from their nature definite assertions. But the strength of the attack on "popular government"—the expression itself, by the way, is a very vague one—lies not in definite assertions, but in impressive suggestions. What, for example, is the exact lesson to be drawn from the violent ends of many Mexican Presidents, is not perhaps quite easy to state; but the fact that the democracy of Mexico has not produced either order or liberty certainly gives rise to reflections not favorable to popular government. Now to a generation whose taste is repelled by the formalism or pedantry of set argument, or whose indolence dislikes the trouble of systematic reasoning, nothing is more charming than the substitution of suggestions for direct appeals to the understanding. Sir Henry Maine, in short, by his literary brilliancy, by his breadth of view, by his infinitive suggestiveness, exactly meets the taste of the time. His writings correspond with the spirit of the age, and therefore exert immense and in many respects quite legitimate influence.

It is far easier to note the causes than to determine the probable permanence of Sir Henry Maine's influence. Whoever appreciates our author's rare intellectual gifts, and notes the great extent to which literary immortality is due to style, will be inclined to augur that Maine's 'Ancient Law' will take its place among books which have become classics, such, for example, as are Bacon's 'Essays,' Hobbes's 'Leviathan,' Burke's 'Thoughts on the Cause of the Present Discontent in England,' and Montesquieu's 'Esprit des Lois' in France. But when one comes to consider the merits no less than the demerits of Maine's 'Popular Government,' it is impossible not to entertain a doubt how far it will share the fortune of his first and, in our judgment, his best book. The immediate effect produced by the four essays which make up the treatise on popular government is, as the warmest of our author's admirers will admit, due in great measure to the circumstances of the day. The work gives adequate expression to a very peculiar phase of English sentiment. The well-to-do classes in England are not inspired by any hatred of democracy; the lapse of nearly a century has extinguished the anti-Jacobin enthusiasm roused by the horrors of the Revolution. The immense stability exhibited by the structure of English society has impressed upon the mass of educated Englishmen the conviction that political changes produce, if much less good, yet also infinitely less evil, than is conventionally ascribed to them. The governing classes in the country, therefore, have acquiesced in the establishment of democratic institutions; but acquiescence is different from enthusiasm, and it may be doubted whether any generation ever expected less from political innovations than do Englishmen of the year 1886. A fact, moreover, is just at this moment becoming apparent to ordinary politicians which has long been known to thinkers—namely, that the spirit of popular government is not easy to reconcile with the spirit and the exigencies of British imperialism. The time is one marked, to use a word of Maine's own, by disillusionment. 'Popular Government' gives exact expression to this feeling; its drift is, that democracy is a mere form of government, and a form which, like other schemes of polity, may pass away. While it exists, our true wisdom is, our teacher suggests, to make the best of a somewhat indifferent piece of political mechanism. The lesson may be sound or unsound; but, whatever be its intrinsic merits, it singularly suits the prevalent temper of the nation and the class to which it is addressed. This peculiarity, while it contributes immensely to the immediate success of Sir Henry Maine's latest work, is, to say the least, of bad omen for its lasting reputation. A book suggested by temporary causes may indeed have in it elements of permanent vitality. Malthus was roused to write on population in the main (it would appear) from a desire to outargue his father, and to confute the author on whose teaching his father's convictions mainly depended; yet his treatise has influenced the whole current of political and even of moral speculation. The fallacies of 'Political Justice' are forgotten, while the 'Treatise on Population,' if it ever goes out of human memory, will perish only because its essential doctrines have been embraced in the wider principles of Darwinism.

If we seek for the reason of this vitality, we shall find it in the fact that, if the occasion which gave rise to the essay on population was temporary, the author's speculative genius led him to pursue a line of disinterested thought and careful research. Contrast the fate of Malthus on 'Population' with Burke's celebrated 'Letters on a Regicide Peace.' They sounded through Europe like the blast of a trumpet: they summoned hosts to arms; they contained, moreover, a mass of criticism on the Revolution which, one-sided as it is, turns out also to be, as far as it goes, so true that the last historian of the Revolution might be described as a collector of *pièces justificatives* for the invective of Burke. Yet for all this the celebrated 'Letters' are dead; they are read, if at all, for their rhetorical power and not for their substance. The reason of this is obvious. Burke's 'Letters' have every merit but one: the virtue which they lack is the virtue of intellectual disinterestedness. They were composed for a purpose, they attained their ob-

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ject; but the qualities which led to an immediate and splendid triumph were, from their nature, fatal to permanent and enduring influence. And what is true in the highest degree of Burke's celebrated 'Letters' is true, though in a less degree, of every word that he wrote or spoke. The necessities of the politician biassed the work of the philosophical theorist, and that judgment of the world which in the long run is unerring, has refused to accept political partisanship for philosophic speculation.

This want of absolute disinterestedness is, from the political habits of Englishmen, the special weakness of English thinkers. But it also infects the writings of foreigners and of men endowed with judgments calmer than the passionate intellect of Burke. Montesquieu's 'Esprit des Lois' teems with acute reflections. De Tocqueville was felt, and rightly felt by the generation whom he addressed, to be the most original thinker of his day. Yet each of these writers is felt by every careful student to be lacking in absolute intellectual disinterestedness. Montesquieu may write about England, China, or Japan—his eye is always fixed upon France; the real object of his work is to detect or censure the defects of the French monarchy. De Tocqueville appeared to himself and to his friends to be the impartial critic of democratic government, but his analysis of 'Democracy in America' is nothing else than a criticism of tendencies, most of which he disliked, in the political and social habits of Frenchmen. Both his great works breathe the spirit of the period in which they were composed. Every word of the 'Ancien Régime' is unconsciously influenced by the author's feeling with regard to the Empire. Of course, in the case of De Tocqueville as of Montesquieu, of whom he is in some sense the follower, the genius of the writer has produced thoughts of permanent value which mankind will hardly let die. But these thoughts will generally be found to be the speculations which had least to do with the immediate wants of the age in which they were produced. Immortal thoughts, like immortal acts, are always disinterested. Now the question which suggests itself to even the most admiring critics of Maine's 'Popular Government' is whether, with all its merits, it contains enough disinterested thought to keep it alive when the sentiment of 1886 has given place to some other form of feeling. That it has some such elements we do not dispute, but it is, both for good and bad, more of a political pamphlet than a speculative treatise. The author may urge that he wrote with the patriotic aim of resisting prevalent delusions. So be it. This aim has been, and no doubt will be, to a great extent, attained; but our cordial admiration for Sir Henry Maine's works inspires us with some regret that the rarest powers of expression and of thought should be employed in the partisan warfare of the moment. Hundreds will read 'Popular Government' who will not care to study 'Ancient Law.' But to students Maine's great work will still remain his 'Ancient Law.'

WALDSTEIN'S ART OF PHIDIAS.

Essays on the Art of Pheidias. By Charles Waldstein, M.A., Director of the Fitzwilliam Museum and Reader of Classical Archæology in the University of Cambridge; Ph.D. Heidelberg; M.A. Columbia College, N. Y. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: The Century Co. 1885.

It is not quite clear for what class of readers Mr. Waldstein's book is intended. It deals partly with the rudimentary generalities of artistic criticism, and in part with such archæological minutiæ as are usually welcome only to the special student—a discrepancy which is perhaps due to first publishing in the *Century* some of the essays which are now collected, while others were written for strictly technical readers. The book has an air of looking both ways, and carries off this rather difficult attitude as well, perhaps, as is practicable. The essays which make the body of the work are a connected series, discussing Phidias and the sculpture of the Parthenon. The author's method, as he tells us, "consists in leading to the ultimate result of a general and complete knowledge of the subject as a whole; but the fixing of this knowledge in the mind of the reader is effected by means of a continuous series of separate investigations, arranged in a methodical manner so as to enter into every special question and still to cover the whole ground of inquiry." One of his purposes, professed in the Note to the American Edition, is to make clear to his countrymen the modern aims and methods of archæological study; and no better exponent of them could offer. After an introductory essay on the study of classical archæology, the next, on the spirit of the art of Phidias, is followed by a series of discussions of the Parthenon sculptures in series—the metopes, the pediments, the frieze, the Athena Parthenos; and the subject is closed by another general essay on the influence of the school of Phidias upon his followers. Four other essays, on kindred subjects, are reprinted from scientific journals in the form of an appendix.

Mr. Waldstein lays emphasis on the application to his studies of the comparative method, distinguished from the examination of records; that is, by comparison of the works of art themselves, by tracing from one to another the peculiarities of artist and school. The reader may admire the disciplined keenness with which attitudes, proportions, details of the human figure or of drapery, tricks of workmanship, are recognized and followed as characteristic of this or that sculptor or school; the minuteness and the cogency with which reasoning based on these leads from one identification to another, the lights that cross and recross between this line of investigation and the parallel study of texts and inscriptions. Doubtless indifferent readers may be led by the charm of Mr. Waldstein's enthusiasm and the story of his researches to an interest in subjects which were before dull to them, and to new respect for the powers and equipment of mind which they presuppose. The *points de repère* by which Mr. Waldstein lays out his discussions are naturally in most cases the identifications and discoveries to which his own independent study has been turned. Thus the salient topic in the essay on the metopes is his identification of a head, which had lain undistinguished in the Louvre, as that of a Lapith in one of the metopes in the British Museum. This is an archæological find of value and a credit to Mr. Waldstein's knowledge and acuteness. (The Centaur's head, here attached to the same metope, but assigned by Michaelis to another, does not to us look at home in its position in the illustration.) So the burden of the essays on the pediment sculpture is the identification of a fragment which the author distinguished in the Museum of the Ducal Palace at Venice, and the establishing of certain personifications among the figures, which he works out with great ingenuity and abundant parallel examples. Mr. Waldstein follows Brunn in his theory of landscape personification. He agrees with him in considering the figure most commonly known as Theseus to be a personification of Mount Olympus, on whose summit the gods met to witness the birth of Athena. This figure occupied the left-hand corner of the eastern pediment, next the extreme angle where the horses which are universally accounted those of Helios are rising out of the sea. Mr. Waldstein adds the plausible theory that the two reclining female figures at the other end of the pediment, next the descending group of Selene, personify Thalassa in the lap of Gaia. We will not venture into the perils of these questions further than to recognize the force of Mr. Waldstein's citations in favor of this personification of the sea, which is perhaps the most important of his identifications, and the plausibility of his reasonings from analogy. It is noteworthy that though this figure was named Thalassa by Weber as long ago as 1822, none of the later authorities have followed him, and that it was left for Mr. Waldstein, in view of its inseparability from the adjoining figure, to name the two together the Sea and the Land.

In his discussion of the frieze of the cella of the Parthenon, from which the chief part of the Elgin marbles is taken, Mr. Waldstein brings to the front the fragment of a terracotta slab which he discovered a while ago among some unregarded fragments in the Louvre, as those will remember who read the article in the *Century* which here makes the sixth essay. It is an evidence of Mr. Waldstein's quickness and sureness of eye that he at once picked out this bit of terracotta, valuable because it contains in perfect condition the head of Athena (mutilated in the marble), although it had long lain unrecognized under the eyes of its keepers at the Louvre. The artistic quality and the appearance of this relief, which is a third as large in scale as the frieze, were such that Mr. Waldstein, discussing its relation to the marble original, conceived the startling theory that it was not only a genuine antique, but an actual model made by Phidias himself for the marble cutters. Further search showed him another terracotta fragment in the Kircherian Museum at Rome which exactly joined and completed that of the Louvre, while in the Museum at Copenhagen was a third fragment, noted by Petersen, which contained the next adjoining figure of the frieze, and corresponded entirely to the other two. But presently Mr. Waldstein found in Mr. Simmons's studio at Rome a series of plaster casts, much fuller, and containing the subjects of the terracotta slabs. These had come from the collection of the sculptor Tenerani; but neither plasters nor terracottas could be traced far back. Comparison showed them to be duplicates, allowing for the difference of material, but the terracottas were smaller in just the proportion in which they should have shrunk in firing if made from the same mould as the plaster. The plasters, then, could not possibly have been taken from the terracottas, but must either be their parents or children of a common parentage. This seems to us fatal to the antiquity of the terracottas, yet to Mr. Waldstein still "the view which presents the fewest serious difficulties is that the plaques are genuine antiques."

Here is a cue to what are, in our judgment, the shortcomings of Mr. Waldstein's book. With evident desire to argue his propositions fairly and state his cases evenly, he is possessed by his enthusiasms. While these make his discussion interesting and persuasive, they lead him to a positiveness in details which savors of overstatement and lends an ex-parte color to his arguments. This may not offend the general reader, who likes an animated discussion, but it spurs the student to question and dissent. Generalizations and inferences which a cautious writer would be careful to give as probabilities only, are put without hesitation or qualification in a way to easily mislead the trusting inquirer, and even the ordinary reader may be a little shaken when he reads such a passage as this description of the eastern pediment: "Hephaistos has just dealt the blow, and the virgin goddess [Athena], fully armed, swinging her spear, stands before her father, the king of the gods, and the assembled deities, and all are wrapped in wonderment. Hera and Poseidon, Apollo and Artemis, Aphro-

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dite and Ares, Dionysus and Hermes, all are there. . . . Selene turns back to give one more look over the sea and land to the heights" —he may be a little shaken, we say, at the thought that the whole centre of the scene has been missing for centuries, and never recorded; that the virgin goddess, the king of the gods, Hera, Poseidon, Apollo, Artemis, Aphrodite, Ares, Dionysus, and Hermes are conspicuously absent, and Hephaistos and Selene only presumably represented by two limbless, headless trunks dug up from the ground below. This, it is true, is not archæology—it is only a peroration; but it is said without qualification, and the same unguarded manner runs through much of the author's argumentation, leading him at times to support even a plausible thesis by arguments *which almost discredit it.*

A like want of reserve, it seems to us, makes the point of view from which Mr. Waldstein looks at his subject insecure. The worship of Phidias among students of Greek art is probably as thoroughly justified as any hero-worship. We grant him to have been the greatest of sculptors. But every such cult is apt to lead its devotees to ascribe actions to their heroes simply for lack of another claimant. The time of Phidias was clearly a time of transition in art. It was also a time of unusual activity and fecundity, in which the producers as well as the works must have been very numerous. It would seem as if under Pericles's reconstructions all the energy of Athens went into its building; as in Boston and Chicago after their great fires. We are told that Phidias was his commissioner of works, and that he had the oversight of all the artists and workmen with whom Athens swarmed. We are told nothing of his labor upon any of the great buildings which went on at that time, except that it was he who wrought (ἐργάζετο) the chryselephantine statue of Athena, the Parthenos, which stood in the Parthenon, and signed his name to it. But the sculpture of the Parthenon alone included two huge pediments, each a hundred feet wide, crowded with colossal statues of men and horses; ninety-two metopes containing each two figures, or more, under life size, but practically sculptured in the round; a frieze covered with some four hundred figures in relief and a crowd of horses. The Parthenon, the Propylæa, the Odeum, the temple of the Dioscuri, that at Eleusis, all went on under their several architects, and Plutarch says that the most wonderful thing of all was the rapidity of their building. It is difficult to see how the man who had the oversight of the whole could design in detail the decoration of any, least of all a building so enormously elaborate as the Parthenon, while the chryselephantine colossus alone might well have given him two or three years of work.

But it is a habit among archæologists to hold him responsible for all the sculpture of the Parthenon. Mr. Waldstein's book ascribes everything to him. Not only the general iconography of the Parthenon is his, the schemes of composition, the distribution of figures; not only the carrying out of the most important groups is controlled by his supervision, but, in the design of the individual figures the character of heads, the modelling of limbs, the very folds of draperies are his, and even the peculiarities of handicraft in the cutting of the reliefs are idiosyncrasies of Phidias. Among the sculptures of the Parthenon there are considerable differences of style, especially among the metopes, where some show distinct traces of archaism, and others are advanced in style. In these differences Mr. Waldstein sees indications of the personal growth of Phidias, his rapid advance from early imperfection to perfect skill, and the same thing in less degree in the two pediments. But Phidias was presumably at the height of his fame when Pericles put him in authority, and had made himself famous by a great number of important public works, which imply fully developed powers: to assume that he got his schooling among the metopes of the Parthenon, executed as they must have been by many hands and in a wonderfully short time—that is, in great part simultaneously—seems to us very venturesome. Students of the history of art know that in periods of transition great disparities of style are found among artists who have worked side by side. In the thirteenth century, where the record is clearer and the chronology surer, at a period very analogous in its rapidity of development to the time of Phidias, we find convincing examples. We see among the churches of the Isle of France, for instance, *ranges of carved capitals which must be contemporaneous*, yet show the differences of style that mark successive generations. The conclusion is that they were cut by carvers of different habit—that men who held to an old manner worked side by side with others who were full of a new spirit. The examples are too common to be overlooked, and the analogy in the Parthenon is obvious. In Mr. Waldstein's discussions the vision of Phidias overshadows everything else, and leaves no room for any design, any initiative, any style, any idiosyncrasies but his. This is not going so far as another authority we have met, who ascribes even the architecture of the Parthenon to Phidias, and leaves Ictinus and Callicrates in the cold; but it seems to us going too far. It will be safer to assume that Phidias had under him men who, if less famous, stood as near to him as Giulio Romano to Raphael, or Sebastiano del Piombo to Michael Angelo. But we are only told that certain individual figures in Del Piombo's compositions were actually sketched by Michael Angelo, and it is even known that he gave their combined work a coloring which Michael Angelo could not have furnished. On the other hand, to furnish the model for a single sculptured figure involves more labor than to sketch scores of figures for another's painting.

To see only Phidias in all the sculpture of the Periclean period greatly simplifies the *coup d'œil*, but is likely to be misleading. It were well to study the whole question from a more impersonal point of view, and we may more reasonably say that to our sight Phidias is only a name for a particular phase of a nation's art. If there is homogeneity in the work, it argues homogeneity among the artists: where there are differences, we find what we had a right to expect. What we have sufficient authority for attributing to Phidias is represented to our eyes only by two rude statuettes which imitate the Parthenos, the stamps on various coins, and far-off echoes in the design of a number of statues of later periods. That his reputation entirely overshadowed his fellow-sculptors we have evidence in the works of late writers both Greek and Roman. But how much he had to do with the decoration of the Parthenon is a question of pure conjecture; for while we are told that he made the Athena of gold and ivory within it, and while a score of his other works are described or particularized by various writers, we find no witness of his connection with the work on the Parthenon itself.

Mr. Waldstein discusses at some length the puzzling group in the middle of the eastern end of the frieze. Adopting and improving on a suggestion of Mr. A. S. Murray, he calls attention to the quasi-perspective in the treatment of the frieze, and holds that the figures which, in the middle, break the assembly of the gods, represent a recessed group. They are seen through the gap between the gods, who are separated into two divisions, looking opposite ways towards the two arms of the procession which approach from the north and south sides of the cella. For this view he argues with much clearness and probability. The action of the central group, thus reduced to secondary importance, he holds, with Flasch, to represent the priest preparing for the ceremony, and not, as has been commonly taken for granted, the consecration of the peplos of Athena. To part of his discussion of the frieze we must decidedly take exception. It has been a standing paradox that this enormously elaborate frieze, sculptured with a delicacy and refinement which have been the wonder of later ages, should be set at a height of forty feet, under a narrow portico which cut off all light but what was reflected from below, and is so narrow that the spectator cannot get ten feet away from the foot of the wall which carries the frieze. The false and inadequate lighting must have thrown the modelling into confusion even if the figures were detached from the ground and each other by positive colors: the extreme obliquity of view would have ruined the contours even of a painting in flat tints. Mr. Waldstein cannot accept what seems to us the inevitable. He argues at length and with much minuteness to prove that Phidias took careful account of these disadvantages, and with wonderful technical skill and by the idiosyncrasies of his relief work overcame them and made his sculpture clear to the spectator. The peculiarities of treatment which he cites in support of his position are not idiosyncrasies of Phidias, we think, but have been the common property of skilful carvers of reliefs at all times, most of them having birth in other technical necessities than those to which he ascribes them. That whoever cut the Parthenon frieze used, as a matter of course, the technical precautions which have been common in other finished schools for treatment of reliefs above the eye, and which presumably were so in Phidias's time, we can easily believe; but we cannot believe that they hoped to overcome the peculiar difficulties of the situation. As the frieze is now set in the British Museum, nearly on the level of the eye, it is seen as it never was by Phidias's countrymen. Whoever will take the trouble, as we have done, to study a full-sized cast from the frieze high above the eye at an angle of fifteen degrees with its plane, will soon convince himself that to expect to cure its obliquity by the delicate devices cited by Mr. Waldstein was hardly more hopeful than to mend a broken leg with glue. He will probably decide that Phidias was not the blunderer that Mr. Waldstein's argument would make him out to be, and will prefer to think that the sculptors of the Parthenon, just as in the pediment they carved the unseen side of the Theseus (or Olympus) as delicately as the visible, found their satisfaction in doing their work on the frieze as well as they could do it, rather than in its effect to the eye below.

The application of the comparative method to the study of ancient art, of which Mr. Waldstein's book is an exposition, opens out many lines of investigation to which there is no guide in the study of records. Identifications, the tracing of connections, sequences, developments, become possible beyond the rigid boundaries of documentary evidence. Its processes are naturally more interesting than the sifting of texts, and their results more enticing. It is more attractive to trace the draperies of Phidias or the lines of Praxiteles in the work of other sculptors than to verify texts, or to classify inscriptions by the form of an S and the termination of a genitive. But it is also more hazardous. Conclusions so reached are not so convincingly proved. Observers differ much more in their perceptions of artistic qualities than of dialectic or epigraphic forms. To distinguish securely the technical idiosyncrasies of a particular artist is a problem of elimination which calls for not only a knowledge of the master himself, but familiarity with

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the general stock of technical expedients. Nothing is easier than to strain beyond their significance the details of artistic treatment or of subtle interpretations. We think we see an instance of this in Mr. Waldstein's minute discussion of the drapery of the two figures above mentioned as Thalassa and Gaia. Safety lies only in a wide induction. Critics of art are constantly assigning subtle esoteric meanings to things which are simply matters of artistic effect or technical processes; and it is not given to every investigator to add to the trained scholarship of the archæologist an eye so open and so sympathetic to the artist's means of expression as Dr. Waldstein's.

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

Rachel. By Nina H. Kennard. (Famous Women Series). Boston: Roberts Bros.

Adelaide Neilson: A Souvenir. By Laura C. Holloway. Funk & Wagnalls.

The Art of the Stage, as set out in Lamb's Dramatic Essays, with a Commentary. By Percy Fitzgerald, M.A., F.S.A. London: Remington & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford.

La Femme du Comique. Par L. P. Laforêt. Paris: Giraud; New York: F. W. Christern.

Les Hommes-Phénomènes. Par Guyot-Daubes. Paris: Masson; New York: F. W. Christern.

THERE was already a shelf-full of books and pamphlets about Rachel—Jules Janin's 'Rachel et la Tragédie'; Mme. de Bury's slightly hostile biography; Beauvallet's 'Rachel en Amérique,' which contains hardly a word of praise for anything American, except for the acting of Mr. William Warren, the Boston comedian; and the collection of correspondence by M. George d'Heylli. This latest attempt at a biography is by an English lady, Mrs. Kennard, who succeeds in giving a distinct and accurate impression of the woman, although she fails in the far more difficult task of setting before us the genius of the actress. We are told repeatedly in these pages that Rachel was a great actress, and evidence is adduced to show that she was regarded as such by the leading contemporary critics and by the wide play-going public. But Mrs. Kennard does not explain to us how she was great, wherein her genius was triumphant over obstacles, or wherein it was aided by the restrictions of French tragedy. It would be interesting to have considered why it was that Rachel was greatest in Racine and Corneille, and why she failed in the few romantic parts she attempted and in all the modern plays written for her, excepting only the classic "Moineau de Lesbie" and the skilfully arranged "Adrienne Lecouvreur." As to the height of her histrionic power, and as to its well-defined limits, the student will get a better idea from Lewes's brief chapter than from Mrs. Kennard's whole book, although the latter abounds in information not without interest. That Rachel was the greatest actress who ever lived—with the possible exception of Mrs. Siddons—seems to us indisputable; and it is a pity that there should not be a biography of her in which the mere facts of her career might be subordinated to a consideration of her artistic development. Mrs. Kennard's book is good enough as far as unessentials are concerned; it might have been well to quote Legouvé's curious account of Rachel's rejection of "Adrienne Lecouvreur" when Scribe read the play to her, and her acceptance of it when he (Legouvé) read the part *at* her; but in general our authoress has been very diligent in collecting suitable material from the many memoirs and pamphlets of the time. It is a pity that her knowledge of the history of the French stage is not equal to her industry and her zeal. For instance, although Mlle. Mars was elected an associate of the Comédie-Française in 1799, it is scarcely exact to speak "of the grace and beauty that enchanted the France of the latter end of the preceding century," for it was not until after 1800 that Mlle. Mars came before the public in a new character of any special importance. There are also not a few unfortunate misprints, *clique* for *claque*, Rancourt for Raucourt, Bohan for Brohan, Baptiste Aimé for *aîné*, "Vendéene" for "Vendéenne," etc. And there is no index.

With all its faults Mrs. Kennard's 'Rachel' is immensely superior to Mrs. Holloway's 'Adelaide Neilson.' In a way one may venture to see a certain likeness in character and in career between Rachel, who was a genius, and Neilson, who was a beauty. Rachel, indeed, had beauty only in so far as her genius gave it to her; and Adelaide Neilson had genius only in so far as beauty is genius. They were both successful and miserable women; and they both were wanting in the chief virtue of woman. Mrs. Kennard honestly and briefly gives the facts about the dark stain on Rachel's character, without dwelling on the matter either prudishly or pruriently; she handles a delicate subject with delicacy and frankness. Mrs. Holloway chooses to be blind to what is notorious in Neilson's career, while yet hinting at "slanderous enemies," "the storms of a wayward and passionate youth," and so on. In the main, Mrs. Holloway's book is a medley of rambling rhapsody and second-hand gossip. There is nowhere any connected account of Neilson's theatrical career, or any serious attempt to estimate her histrionic ability. Such value as this "souvenir" may have is due wholly to the eight photographs of the actress, four of them as *Juliet*—undoubtedly her best part, for beauty is the stage *Juliet's* chiefest requisite—and others of *Pauline*, *Cymbeline*, and *Viola*.

Mr. Percy Fitzgerald is one of the most careless of theatrical biographers: his 'Life of Garrick,' for instance, is a model of what a histrionic memoir should not be, and his 'Lives of the Kembles' is little, if any, better. But he is well read in the history of the stage, he has studied the good critics, and he has laid hold of not a little sound doctrine. From Charles Lamb he has learned most; and, despite his fondness for paradox, Lamb was one of the very best critics of the acted drama. Mr. Fitzgerald has now brought together in one volume Lamb's various dramatic essays, accompanying them with a Comment of his own, in which he seeks to apply Lamb's principles to the contemporary English stage. In England, far more than here or in France, there is a frequent effort to put "the real thing" on the stage—an effort doomed to inevitable failure. Real pumps, real horses, and real cabs, or elaborately "built-up" houses, have nothing whatever to do with the drama. A realistic imitation of nature—instead of an artistic suggestion—is directly contrary to the *optique du théâtre*. Lowell said that Wordsworth was constantly mistaking fact, which chokes the muse, for truth, which is the breath of her nostrils; and M. Zola in his preaching, and many an English manager in his practice, is constantly making Wordsworth's mistake without Wordsworth's excuse. Mr. Fitzgerald's use of Lamb's sharp pen to combat this delusion is most welcome.

Despite the prefatory letter of M. Émile Augier, which led us to expect a serious study from life, M. Laforêt's novel, 'La Femme du Comique,' is of very little value, and is not to be included among the really good stories of French theatrical life, of which M. Jules Claretie's 'Troisième Dessous' (notwithstanding its inordinate length), M. Edgar Monteil's 'Cornebois,' and M. Cadol's 'Rose' remain the best.

About ten years ago M. Gaston Escudier published a picturesque and interesting volume on 'Les Saltimbanques.' It was written from the literary, not to say journalistic, point of view, and was a clever piece of descriptive work. Now M. Guyot-Daubes, in his 'Hommes-Phénomènes,' approaches the subject from the scientific side, and is quite as entertaining. His book belongs to the "Bibliothèque de *la Nature*"; and in it he considers at length and in turn the feats of the professional strong man, of runners (omitting all mention of the anomalous go-as-you-please contests, now happily obsolescent), of leapers, of swimmers and divers, of acrobats and contortionists, of jugglers and sword-swallowers, and of sharpshooters. It is highly amusing, by the way, to note that his authority for the skill of marksmanship supposed to exist among the hunters of Kentucky is Audubon: we cannot help wondering whether the French author really supposes that there has been no change in the half-century or more since Audubon wrote. It is some sop to our national vanity to see that the sharpshooter whose feats seem to be best known to M. Guyot-Daubes is Mr. Ira-Paine, performing in Paris not long ago in some Parisian modification of the American "variety show." Among the most entertaining of M. Guyot-Daubes's always entertaining pages are those discussing the great gifts of the Japanese acrobats and equilibrists; but his observations are not final. A treatise on Japanese gymnastics by an expert is as much to be desired as a treatise on Indian conjuring by an expert: both subjects are little understood.

Flying Leaves from East and West. By Emily Pfeiffer. Scribner & Welford. 1885.

THE author of this volume, although a poetess, was wiser than the sibyl, and carefully consigned her vagrant screeds to the safe custody of the mail-bag. It is difficult to make out whether the little chapters are passages from a note-book, or letters home, or public correspondence. They have the characteristics of all three kinds of fragmentary compositions—now discursive, and now intimate, and again streaked with that sort of social philosophy which takes itself seriously only in London papers. There are a few of these "leaves" from Asia Minor, each prettily pictorial with gardens, and divans, and harems, and decayed palaces, and brides, and eunuchs; but nearly all are from the West—our own country and Canada. The traveller made what she calls "the round trip" from New York by the Canadian cities to Chicago, and thence to California and back to St. Louis and Washington, winding up with Boston. The time, however, was short, and really sufficed only for a view of the celebrated points, and such a surface glimpse of the people as an intelligent and interested tourist would satisfy himself with in any country. With the foreigners' America, as one may call it, from the elephant on Coney Island to the seals in the Golden Horn, she became acquainted speedily. Our hotels, Saratoga, Niagara, Chicago shops, Colorado coloring, the Mormons, the Chinese, the Yosemite, the President's reception (where she marked a lack of the royal art of being bored with ease), and the Boston literary tea-party, make up the great field of her observation. The description of these things would not detain the native reader were it not for the very pleasant style of the narrative, and especially the philosophizing in regard to democracy. In fact, the author did see one bit of our people at the house of a relative, a Wisconsin farmer, and the account of her visit there lies in her pages like a little German pastoral. That she found very charming, but with democracy elsewhere she cannot make any effectual acquaintance. She says frankly she does not like it. It seemed to her that women are not helped in public places as they should be by male strangers; it is an inference

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from her own experience, but she admits as a qualifying circumstance that she was attended by her husband. The great rock of offence is the impossibility of obtaining properly subordinate domestic servants, a vice inherent in democracy, from the full disastrous effects of which we are saved for a time by the great boon of the negroes. This cause of dissatisfaction, however, is hardly less than the foreboding of a lost and lonely feeling in not knowing just where she belonged in a society without fixed external distinctions of place and respect.

Altogether, there is a good deal of frank criticism of the social phase of democracy from the standpoint of an Englishwoman of comfortable position. There is, too, a wide reach of knowledge and generalization that is seldom found in books of this sort. The Turkish harem and the Mormon household suggest equally delicate questions, which are discussed with more innocence than reserve. The notes show that the author was one of the victims of last summer's London sensation; and from their confiding faith in the exposure it would be an easy inference that this cultivated and refined poetess might find more useful and pleasant subjects for public reflection than the "artificial prudential check" and like topics of occult science. The temper of the book is very cordial to America, and if the writer did not go back a convert, she certainly went as a friend.

The Journal Intime of Henri Frédéric Amiel. Translated, with an Introduction, by Mrs. Humphrey Ward. Macmillan.

THERE would be little need to say anything of this book after the extended reviews, both French and English, which appeared upon its first publication, were it not that the present translation will introduce it to a new circle of readers. Mrs. Ward says very justly, in her preface, that there are many persons, not ignorant of French, who still have not the power to understand and appreciate the subtle and complicated expressions of such a book. She has done her work most admirably. In spite of the modesty of her acknowledgments of the help of friends, especially of M. E. Scherer, himself no ordinary English scholar, it is evident that her mastery over both French and English is thorough and complete. So choice a piece of work rarely appears in England. She had not only to render smoothly the descriptions and comments upon daily life, to give the point and sparkle of the epigrams which often sum up Amiel's literary judgments, but she had the difficult task of making clear the abstruse philosophical speculations which were almost his passion. So perfectly has she done it all that almost never is the thought of a translation suggested.

Amiel was born of an old Languedoc family, emigrants to Geneva after the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes. Early orphaned, a small inheritance enabled him to pursue at ease a wide and prolonged course of study in various places, though most importantly at Berlin. Returning to Geneva in 1849, he was appointed, at the age of twenty-eight, Professor of Æsthetics in the Academy, and a little later Professor of Moral Philosophy. To his friends the future seemed all his own. Unfortunately this very success proved a disaster, for it involved him in political relationships which, absolutely without fault or agency of his own, alienated him from what was most cultivated, most attractive, and most congenial to him in the society of Geneva. This being thrown back upon himself increased a natural tendency to inaction, a shrinking from practical exertion, which, gaining as years went on, made his life a disappointment to his friends and a bitter, hopeless regret to himself. The different elements of character which led to so sad a result Mrs. Ward has carefully studied in an introduction which will interest even those who have seen the French articles upon the 'Journal.' It was the sole confidant of the lonely thinker, and, like a faithful friend, it now repays his trust by revealing to those who ignored or doubted him the manner of man he really was. Its frank independence has brought upon it some strict judgments (notably in a late number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*). Paris is not over-willing to hear criticism from Geneva. Amiel himself knew the risk. "Geneva should be to *la Grande Nation* what Diogenes was to Alexander: her rôle is to represent the independent thought and the free speech which is not dazzled by prestige and does not blink the truth. It is true that the rôle is an ungrateful one, that it lends itself to sarcasm and misrepresentation—but what of that?"

The notes on French character are singularly valuable, for Amiel is by blood a thorough Frenchman, yet his German studies and associations gave him an outside point of view. The two pages on Rousseau as "the ancestor of many things" and as "the point of departure" for Chateaubriand, sum up a long literary history. Again and again a single phrase, like a vivid flash, reveals a trait in some author, or the essential quality of a book. "A chronicler may be able to correct Tacitus, but Tacitus survives the chroniclers." "There is not a single echo of chivalry in La Fontaine. For him, the history of France dates from Louis XIV. . . . His defects are eclipsed by his immense variety of different attitudes." "Greek sculpture was Goethe's school of virtue. Completely lacking as he is in the sense of obligation and of sin, he nevertheless finds his way to seriousness through dignity." "In Renan there are still some remains of saintly *ruse*. He strangles with sacred cords." "Schopenhauer professes Buddhism in the full flow of modern Germany, and absolute detachment of mind in the very midst of the nineteenth-century orgie." "Effect is the misfortune of Victor Hugo, because he makes it the centre of his æsthetic system." "Cherbuliez is an Alexandrian exquisite, substituting for the feeling which makes men earnest the irony that leaves them free." "Doudan is an Athenian of the Roman time, a true disciple of Epicurus. The classical world and the Renaissance—that is to say, the horizon of La Fontaine—is his horizon."

Still, Amiel's interest in literature was only the lesser part of his life. We have brought it forward because the reviewers have chiefly occupied themselves with his philosophical discussions, hardly showing on how many different lines the book attracts the reader. Literature and philosophy, wide as their limits are, do not cover all of thought, nor satisfy the whole of the human spirit. "Philosophy can never replace religion; revolutionaries are not apostles, although the apostles may have been revolutionaries. Humanity must have her saints and her heroes to complete the work of her philosophers." It is just here that many minds will feel their closest sympathy with Amiel. They find in him that same burden and bewilderment of intellectual questionings that become only the more perplexing the more we know, and at the same time they see that to him the love and reverence for the old had never lost their force. The old is not a mere form; the tradition that is dear is not of names or rites, but of duties and sacrifices. "Christianity is above all religions; and religion is not a method: it is a life, a communion with God, a calm and deep enthusiasm, a love which radiates, a force which acts, a happiness which overflows." "Righteousness consists in willingly accepting one's lot, in submitting to and espousing the destiny assigned us, in willing what God commands, in renouncing what he forbids us, in consenting to what he takes from us or refuses us." "Piety is the daily renewing of the ideal." This note of personal religion is the more remarkable since there was in Amiel a strong artistic sense, which might have blinded his moral vision. Of Cherbuliez, whose brilliant qualities he admired, he wrote: "It is a splendid organization. Only sometimes he must be antipathetic to those men of duty who make renunciation, sacrifice, and humility the measure of individual worth." These are but imperfect hints of what the book contains; still less do they show the full man. That union of aspiring faith with flexibility of mind that accepts freely the conditions of life and the lessons of experience, while the love of truth is the paramount motive, forms a character that, whatever may be the outward contradictions, speaks to us of our own doubts, raises our hopes, and, though faltering itself, becomes our guide to a higher life.

Amiel has been much compared with Obermann and Maurice de Guérin, but he is far nearer to us than either. Sénancour belonged to the last generation; De Guérin died young. Moreover, there was in Amiel that deeper seriousness which we characterize by the word Puritan. It is for that type of religious mind, of which there are very many among English-speaking peoples, even though they disavow the name, that the book will have the strongest attraction. It is for them, most of all, that Mrs. Ward has done her work.

The Blood-Covenant: A Primitive Rite and its Bearing on Scripture. By H. Clay Trumbull, D.D. Charles Scribner's Sons.

TERENCE'S feeling that he was a man, and therefore nothing human was foreign to him, must, it would seem, be very strong in any one who could enjoy the reading of this book, and still stronger in the author who has made the necessary preparation for its publication. But it is evident that he has been encouraged in his laborious enterprise less by the human—or shall we say inhuman?—interest of his task than by the hope of bringing something out of it for the elucidation of the Christian doctrine of atonement by the blood of Jesus. "Certainly," he says in his preface, "the collation of facts comprised in this volume grew out of no preconceived theory on the part of the author"; and perhaps so much may be allowed, though what is likelier is, that some dim, half-formed conception of the forensic value of the ancient rite for current theological debates inspired him to the prosecution of its study. The operation of the argument will not be universally the same as in the author's mind. There is something wonderfully pathetic in his naïve assurance that it will make the same impression upon all his readers. But many of them will be simply outraged by the connection which he has established, or at least endeavored to establish, between a barbarous custom and a central dogma of the Christian faith, and some of them will even go so far as to suspect him of a covert attack upon the Christian doctrine of atonement under the mask of friendly intercession. Meantime, while the judicious grieve, iconoclasts of the Ingersoll variety will be immoderately pleased. They will declare that Dr. Trumbull has furnished them with such an armory of weapons as they could not have themselves collected without an infinite deal of trouble. But the critic, endeavoring to disengage himself from both the theological and anti-theological bias, will first admire the industry and patience that have gone to the collection and arrangement of so many painful facts, and then acknowledge his surprise that Dr. Trumbull should consider their significance so great for Christian theologians.

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The method he pursues is just the opposite of that which was the characteristic method of the early Christians and has always been in general repute in Christendom. This was to magnify the novelty of every Christian rite and doctrine. In our own time, the Christian apologist has generally been suspicious of the studies of comparative religion; and when the more rational apologist has extracted confirmation for his creed from foreign sources, it has been from their purest fountains. But what does Dr. Trumbull do but mix together a heap of facts illustrative of one of the most degrading and revolting superstitions that disfigured primitive society, and endeavor to convert it into a monument in honor of a Christian doctrine? He must not complain if many read his lesson backwards. To read it so will seem to many not only natural but unavoidable.

The book is made up of three chapters and an appendix. The chapters are amplifications of three lectures that were given before the Summer School of Hebrew in Philadelphia, July 16-18, 1885. A certain lack of unity and coherency in their arrangement is very likely owing to the amplification of their original form. The first chapter, on "The Primitive Rite Itself," contains in its first section ("Sources of Bible Study") an almost comical inversion of the natural order of ideas and of their actual development: "But latterly it has been realized, that, while the Bible is an Oriental book, written primarily for Orientals, and therefore to be understood only through an understanding of Oriental modes of thought and speech, it is also a record of God's revelation to the whole human race," etc., etc. How free the author is from any theological bias may be inferred from this sentence, also, which is in the same connection: "Not alone those who insist on the belief that there was a gradual development of the race from a barbarous beginning, but those who believe that man started from a higher plane, and in his degradation retained perverted vestiges of God's original revelation to him," etc. Which theory is Dr. Trumbull's does not admit of any doubt whatever. The discussion fairly opens with an account of blood-covenanting as now practised among Syrians at the base of Lebanon. Then follow examples of the rite in Africa, in Teutonic Europe, in classic literature, in Egypt, and elsewhere. The evidence is abundant that the rite was very general among barbarous and savage races, and that its character was more homogeneous than would be imagined from its geographical extent. In a second chapter, on "Suggestions and Perversions of the Rite," there are more examples of its use, and illustrations of the general importance attached to the blood of men and animals in all primitive societies. The third and final chapter amplifies the Jewish contribution to the argument in circumcision, sacrifice, the Passover, and so on. Lastly we come to "The Blood Covenant in the Gospels." In the Last Supper Dr. Trumbull finds the antitype to all the prototypes of blood-drinking he has brought together, and in the death of Jesus an antitype of all the blood-covenantings of antiquity. Of verbal correspondences there is certainly no lack; for example, "Except ye eat the flesh of the Son of Man and drink his blood, ye have not life in yourselves." In the death of Jesus on the cross, Dr. Trumbull finds the blood of God himself poured out for men's salvation.

We cannot follow him through the textual analysis with which he seeks to fortify the doctrine which he holds. It is apparently ingenuous; it is certainly ingenious. But it may be seriously doubted whether Dr. Trumbull's service will be appreciated by those whom he is evidently looking to for his applause. They will consider it a doubtful matter to ally the most impressive scene in the life of Jesus, and his death also, with the most repulsive of primeval superstitions. They will fear that infidels and scoffers may declare that Dr. Trumbull only proves that Christian rites and doctrines are survivals of antecedent rites and doctrines of the most doubtful character. They will question whether the more legitimate result of his inquiries was not the tremendous influence of an immemorial past upon the *metaphorical* expression of New Testament ideas.

Fishing with the Fly. Sketches by Lovers of the Art, with Illustrations of Standard Flies, collected by Chas. F. Orvis and A. Nelson Cheney. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

THIS is the second edition of a compilation of articles on angling, and as such, from the rather scanty supply afforded by American angling literature, is as good a selection as could be made. Mr. Orvis, one of the editors, is a dealer in angling materials, and the illustrations of the book take the form of colored plates of the flies of his tying, well enough done, but in artistic merit below some of the English books written or published by tackle dealers, notably Blacker's 'Art of Fly-making' and Theakston. As Mr. Orvis only gives plates of flies of his own tying, those for salmon fishing are very few in number, and one of them at least is misnamed. Trout and bass flies are depicted in numbers enough to satisfy the ardor, or order, of any angler.

The articles, twenty-four in number, are, as we said above, well selected, and have the advantage for readers in this country of being purely American. "The Salmon and Trout of Alaska," by Mr. Beardslee; "The Resources of Fly-fishing," by Dr. Henshall; "Fly-fishing in the Yosemite," by Mr. Vail, are among the most interesting; and "Suggestions," by C. F. Orvis, is excellent reading for any angler. At the end of each article is a page or two of short extracts from writers on angling. This is a very good idea; you find a bit of philosophy from Christopher North, a beautiful description of a spring morning by Norman McLeod, a scrap of natural history from Buckland, a quaint sentence from Walton—all mixed up with considerable trash from others, yet with considerable that is not.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, O. F. March. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. 75 cents.
Aumale, Duc d'. Histoire des Princes de Condé pendant le xvie et xviie siècles. T. III. et. IV. Boston: Schoenhof.
Baillon, Comte de. Henriette-Anne d'Angleterre. Boston: Schoenhof.
Balzac, H. de. César Birotteau. Translation. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $1.
Bent, S. A. Hints on Language in Connection with Light Reading and Writing. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Bingham, Jennie M. Annals of the Round Table, and Other Stories. Phillips & Hunt. $1.
Brooks, H. M. Curiosities of the Old Lottery. [Olden Time Series.] Boston: Ticknor & Co. 50 cents.
Bullen, A. H. The Works of Thomas Middleton. Vols 5-8. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3 each.
Cox, Sir G. W. Lives of Greek Statesmen. 2d series. Harper & Brothers.
Crawford, Capt. J. The Poet Scout: A Book of Song and Story. Funk & Wagnalls. $2.
Daryl, Phillipe. Wassili Samarin. F. W. Christern.
Desnoiresterres, G. La Comédie Satirique au xviiie siècle. Boston: Schoenhof.
Durfee, C. A. Index to Harper's New Monthly Magazine. Vols. I. to LXX. Harper & Bros.
Fabre, Abbé A. Fléchier orateur. Boston: Schoenhof.
Fenn, G. M. The Vicar's People: A Story of a Stain. Cassell & Co. $1.
Feuillet, Octave. La Morte. F. W. Christern.
Gibbons, R. The Physics and Metaphysics of Money. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 25 cents.
Glazier, Capt. W. Peculiarities of American Cities. Illustrated. Philadelphia: Hubbard Brothers.
Goethe's Faust. Part II. Edinburgh: Blackwood & Sons.
Gregg, W. S. Irish History for English Readers. Harper & Brothers. 25 cents.
Griselda: A Novel. Harper & Brothers. 20 cents.
Guide to the Charities of New York and Brooklyn. 1885-86. P. F. McBreen.
Ham, C. H. Manual Training the Solution of Social and Industrial Problems. Illustrated. Harper & Brothers.
Hazlitt, W. The Spirit of the Age, or Contemporary Poets. 4th ed. Scribner & Welford.
Heath, F. G. Sylvan Winter. Illustrated. Scribner & Welford. $3.50.
Holland, Prof. T. E. The Elements of Jurisprudence. 3d. ed. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Houssaye, Henry. Les Hommes et les Idées. Boston: Schoenhof.
Jerome, Irene E. The Message of the Blue Bird. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
Lanman, C. Haphazard Personalities; Chiefly of Noted Americans. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Lawless, Hon. Emily. Hurrish: A Study. Harper & Brothers. 25 cents.
Lee, Rev. A. Eventful Nights in Bible History. Harper & Brothers.
Light on the Hidden Way. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.
Lonsdale, Margaret. George Eliot: Thoughts upon Her Life, Her Books, and Herself. Scribner & Welford.
Lyall, Edna. In the Golden Days. Harper & Brothers.
Meredith, G. The Ordeal of Richard Feverel. New ed. Boston: Roberts Brothers. $2.
Mourcolle, Paul. Les Problèmes de l'histoire. F. W. Christern.
Nouffiard, G. Hector Berlioz et le mouvement de l'art contemporain. Boston: Schoenhof.
O'Connor, T. P. The Parnell Movement. With a Sketch of Irish Parties from 1843. Scribner & Welford.
Osborne, Prof. G. A. Examples of Differential Equations, with Rules for their Solution. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Rand, E. A. Yard-Stick and Scissors. Phillips & Hunt. $1.25.
Reissmann, A. The Life and Works of Robert Schumann. Scribner & Welford.
Saintsbury, G. Specimens of English Prose Style from Malory to Macaulay. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. $2.
Schindler, S. Messianic Expectations and Judaism. Boston: S. E. Cassino & Co. $1.50.
Stories from English History Simply Told. T. Nelson & Sons.
Swaine, Rev. S. A. General Gordon. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Swan, Annie S. Adam Hepburn's Vow: A Tale of Kirk and Covenant. Cassell & Co. $1.
The Encyclopædic Dictionary. A New and Original Work of Reference to All the Words in the English Language. Vol. V., Part I. Cassell & Co. $3.
Thompson, Rev. H. M. The World and the Logos. [The Bedell Lectures.] 1885. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Thompson, R. E. Protection to Home Industry. D. Appleton & Co.
Toland, M. B. M. The Inca Princess: An Historical Romance. Illustrated. Philadelphia; J. B. Lippincott & Co.
Toppan, R. N. Historical Summary of Metallic Money. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Towle, G. M. Young People's History of England. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.

Henry Holt & Co.,

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PUBLISH SATURDAY:

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